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Tuzuvchi: **Ph.D N. A. Mamajanova** – Ingliz tili o`qitish metodikasi katta o`qituvchisi

Taqrizchi: **S.Sharipova** – Ingliz tili o`qitish metodikasi katta o'qituvchisi

O'quv uslubiy majmua NamDUning Ingliz filologiyasi fakulteti Ingliz tili o`qitish metodikasi kafedrasining umumiy yig'iliida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.

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Ingliz tili o`qitish metodikasi kafedrasi mudiri: PhD. M. Abduraxmonov

O'quv uslubiy majmua NamDUning Ingliz filologiyasi fakulteti kengashida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.

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Fakultet dekani: f.f.n. Q. Sidiqov

MUNDARIJA

№	MAVZULAR NOMI	SAHIFA
1	**O'QUV MATERIALLAR** asosiy matn; topshiriqlar variantlari; masala va misollar; keyslar to'plami;	
2	**MUSTAQIL TA'LIM MASHG'ULOTLARI**	
3	**GLOSSARIY**	
4	**ILOVALAR:**	
	fan dasturi;	
	ishchi fan dasturi;	
	testlar;	
	tarqatma materiallar	
	baholash mezonlarini qo'llash bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmalar;	

1. O'QUV MATERIALLAR

asosiy matn;
topshiriqlar variantlari;
masala va misollar;
keyslar to'plami;

<div align="center">

LECTURE 1.
Linguopragmatics as a New Direction of Modern Linguistics.
</div>

§1.1. General notes on Linguopragmatics.

One of the most conspicuous direction of linguistics in the XXI century is a connection between linguistics and pragmatics in both structure and logical meaning. This issue should be viewed and analyzed from multiple perspectives. How language represents the world has long been, and still is, a major concern of philosophers of language. Many philosophers, such as Leibniz, Frege, Russell, the early Wittgenstein, and Carnap, have thought that understanding the structure of language could illuminate the nature of reality; they developed the so-called referential theory of meaning. At first Pirs wrote about pragmatics in XIX century, but the main parameters linked to philosophy of pragmatics was formulated by Morris in 1920. Later, modern linguistic oriented pragmatics was developed under influenced ideas of Nitgenshteyn and the theory of speech acts.

Speech act theory is now receiving great attention and valid theoretical proposals from cognitive linguistics. In this article we will try to describe possible approaches to the description of pragmalinguistics as a system of science of Linguistics and connection with semantics, tasks and practical role of pragmemas. According to Ariel ―Pragmatics derives via Latin pragmaticus from the Greek πραγματικός (pragmatikos), meaning amongst others "fit for action", which comes from πρᾶγμα (pragma), "deed, act", and that from πράσσω (prassō), "to pass over, to practise, to achieve".

Linguistics in pragmatics: the study of features of language use related to speakers' knowledge of the structure and expressive resources of the language itself rather than of the social context.

Linguistic pragmatics do not have a clear form. It includes a set of issues related to the speaker and the listener, their interaction in the speech process. Linguistic pragmatism includes a realistic expression of social activity. Uzbek

linguistics has conducted some research on the pragmatic aspects, the relationship between the speaker and the listener, the interaction of participants in the speech act, and their influence on ethical emotions. The problems of linguistic pragmatics does not have their own interpretation.8 As a part of Pragmatics and a part of the linguistic science, the word pragmaling seems to be a natural thing to say about the category of units.

There are two pragmalingvistic units:

1. Informema.

2.Pragmema.

Pragmalingvistic units are directly affected by language units and functional language areas. The pragmats come into opposition with the information☐gathering function.

Pragmemas are always pragmatic information carriers.

Example:1. To let the cat out of the bag- (idiom)
a) To let some secret become known- (pragmema)
b) Allow the cat to go out from bag-(informema)
2. The police are barking up the wrong tree as usual-Idiom
 a) They suspect somebody who has nothing to do with the crime□pragmema.
 b) they are barking to the tree-informema
the ambigiuty of these interesting word-groups may lead to an amusing misunderstanding, especially for children who are apt to accept words at their face value.

 Nowadays, pragmatic studies are more varied than before. One area of increasing interest is historical pragmatics which, like general diachronic studies, depends heavily upon corpus data. For example, Arnovick examines the speech event of parting, focusing on the development of Goodbye, which was originally an explicit blessing God be with you. She finds that the formal development from God be with you to Goodbye is linked to functional shifts.

Arnovick's study shows that the end of the seventeenth century and the beginning of the eighteenth century marked as crucial period during which the blessing declined and the closing form Goodbye increased in frequency.

 Incomplete words, pronouns, the specific meaning of nouns are clarified only in the text, in public speaking. Also, there are words that are not indistinguishable. Because these words are linked to the text or speech situation.

Morris states, — Pragmatics came to linguistics from semiotics-the theory of sign system, and distinguished with three directions: semantics (sign of meaning), syntactics (sign of connection) and pragmatics (sign and person)‖.

Basically, Morris is saying that linguopragmatics is the symbolic languages which indicates common meaning in particular area.10

 Example: Posters depicting running wild goats on the road- symbolize the caution that drivers must observe, and at the same time indicate a danger, an accident can occur if drivers are not careful in California.

 Pragmatics is a network of linguistic spheres, namely, a science network that studies the use of speech units in combination with other non-zero tools in the speech process, and its effectiveness.

LECTURE 2.

There has been a great amount of discussion on the boundary between semantics and pragmatics, and there are many different formalizations of aspects of pragmatics linked to context dependence. Particularly interesting cases are the discussions on the semantics of indexical and the problem of referential descriptions, a topic developed after the theories of Donnellan. A proper logical theory of formal pragmatics has been developed by DallaPozza, according to which it is possible to connect classical semantics (treating propositional contents as true or false) and intuitionistic semantics (dealing with illocutionary forces). The presentation of a formal treatment of pragmatics appears to be a development of the Fregean idea of assertion sign as formal sign of the act of assertion.11 Linguistics, Literature, Sociology, Psychology, Ethics and Aesthetics, and other disciplines, separate elements from the system of speech from the same system and analyze the distinctive element in the same way (using it in the same position) . Pragmatics learns that the discourse, which is a manifestation of

human activity in various systems, is interpreted as a single unit of these lements as a microsystem. This is to say that all the elements loaded with affection marks associated with the inner feeling of the speech unit into the pragmatic area, and expresses the attitude of the person to the target. V. Dresslar, "Pragmatics is not related to Linguistics. It is incorrect to mix

them"12. Most linguists will probably disagree with this assertion, but there are countless scientists who are pragmatically languishing. Most of them consider pragmatic as a linguistic one, a kind of language school, and a special aspect of speech and language learning. Scientists who interpret Pragmatism as a branch of linguistics, still are not able to give a clear answer for simple questions like:

"What is Pragmatics?", What is the source of its study? "," What aspects of the multilingual speeches does it learn? ".

Accordingly, pragmatics are somewhat new in the field of sociology and

semantics.When it comes to the topic of Semantics, most of us will readily agree that it could not explain enough verbal speech to explain the social linguistic and other non-linguistic components, which led to pragmatism. When the relationship between the speech and the text is very strong, it is necessary to implement pragmatics in the context of the speech, in relation to the text. In a syntactic device, the analysis of descriptive words is based on semantics, while non-descriptive words are analyzed by pragmatics.

LECTURE 3.
SPEECH ACT

According to Austin, when people say something it's not always to descibe things, but by saying it they tend to perfom an action, i.e. we're requesting, commanding, questioning or informing others. For instance, the action of requesting is performed by an utterance.

Grundy described three dimensions of speech acts:
1. Locutionary acts;
2. Illocutionary acts;
3. Perlocutionary acts.

Locutionary acts (act of saying) are formed/utteredin the right grammar and understandable vocabulary, there's no hidden meaning to the words, phrases or sentences. The utterence only implies what the preson said, not what he meant by saying that. We don't just produce utterances with no purpose, but we do so with some kind of function in mind.
- *It's cold here.* (It implies that the speaker feels cold.)
- *Can you please be quiet for a second?* (The speaker is asking not to make noise, whether the listener(s) is/are able to be quiet.)
- *Yes!* (The speaker agrees, approves)

Illocutionary speech act(act we do in saying) is the act of saying sopmething with an intention, i.e. with the help of the utterance we express what we intend to do. The intention can be:
- ❖ *Assertive act*– speech acts that are used to express what the speaker knows or believes. For example, "*Roses smell good.*", *"The earth is flat."* *"The President gave a speech in the UN assembly session."*
- ❖ *Directive act* – speech acts that are used to getsomeone else to do something, like giving commands or orders. *"Go away!", "Close the door when you come back from the shops."*
- ❖ *Commissive acts* – speech acts that are used to express what the speaker intends to do in the future, like promising, threatening, refusing to do something, pledging. *"I'll be back."" I'm going to get it right next time." "I promise to buy you ice cream after school."*
- ❖ *Experessive act* – speech acts that are used to show how the speaker feels about certain situations, states like likes and dislikes, joy, sorrow, pain and etc. *" I'm really sorry!""Congratulations!" "Oh, yes, great, mmmm, ssahh!"*
- ❖ *Declarative acts* – speech acts that are used to changethe world or the situation via utterances, i.e. the speaker causes a situation with his/her words. *"Police officer: You are under-arrest!" " You are fired!"*

Perlocutionary act is the act that affects the listener's behaviour, gives an effect to do something or to feel in a certain way. *"I am useless." –* by hearing this utterance, the hearer is affected and feels sorry.

The same utterance may be described in all three dimensions of speech act.
For example: *It's hot here.*
Locutionary act: The speaker feels hot in this place.
Illocutionary act: The speaker wants the hearer to open the window (requesting), or the speaker might be refusing to close the window even if he/she has been asked to clese it as he/she feels hot.
Perlocutionary act: The hearer will open the window because he/she feels the speaker is hot.

LECTURE 4. PERFORMATIVE SPEECH ACTS

In English grammar and speech-act theory, a performative verb is a verb that explicitly conveys the type of speech act being performed. A speech act is an expression of intent—therefore, a performative verb, also called a speech-act verb or performative utterance, is an action that conveys intent. A speech act can be in the form of a promise, invitation, apology, prediction, vow, request, warning, insistence, forbiddance, and more. Verbs accomplishing any of these are performative verbs.

The concept of performative verbs was introduced by Oxford philosopher J. L. Austin in How to Do Things With Words and further developed by American philosopher J.R. Searle and others like him. Austin estimated that "a good dictionary" contains upwards of 10,000 speech-act verbs (Austin 2009).

The Linguistics Encyclopedia defines performative verbs as follows: "Performative verbs name actions that are performed, wholly or partly, by saying something (state, promise); non-performative verbs name other types of actions, types of action which are independent of sExamples and Observations

See the following examples of performative verbs in various contexts from literature and media. Performative verbs are italicized.

"As your lawyer, your brother, and your friend, I highly recommend that you get a better lawyer," ("Drive With a Dead Girl").

[In response to a vetoed planned course on the origin of political correctness] "We forbid any course that says we restrict free speech," (Dixon 1990).

"'I declare,' he said, 'with the mamma I got it's a wonder I turned out to be such a nice boy!'"(O'Connor 1965).

"As your president, I would demand a science-fiction library, featuring an ABC of the genre. Asimov, Bester, Clarke."eech (walk, sleep)," (Malmkjaer 2002).

Apologies

Performative verbs used in apologies are unique because a person's intent when apologizing is dependent on their level of authenticity. The book Cognitive Exploration of Language and Linguistics attempts to define this: "By saying we apologize we perform an expressive act simultaneously with the naming of that expressive act. It is for this reason that "apologize" is called a performative verb, defined as a verb denoting linguistic action that can both describe a speech act and express it.

This explains why we can say that we are sorry, but not that we are sorry on someone else's behalf because "be sorry" only expresses, but does not describe, the act of making an apology," (Dirven et al. 2009).

Hedged Performatives

Hedged performatives can be used to express speech-acts with more diluted force. This type of performative features speech-act verbs used directly with supporting modifiers

to achieve indirect illocutionary force. Sidney Greenbaum, author of The Oxford English Dictionary, comments on the form and function of hedged performatives below.

"Generally, the performative verb ... is in the simple present active and the subject is I, but the verb may be in the simple present passive and the subject need not be I: Smoking is forbidden; The committee thanks you for your services. A test for whether a verb is being used performatively is the possible insertion of hereby: I hereby apologize; The committee hereby thanks you.

In hedged performatives, the verb is present but the speech act is performed indirectly: In saying I must apologize for my behavior, the speaker is expressing an obligation to make an apology, but implies that the acknowledgment of that obligation is the same as an apology. In contrast, I apologized is a report, and Must I apologize? is a request for advice," (Greenbaum 1996).

Performative utterance

For the broader philosophical and critical applications of the concept, see performativity.

In the philosophy of language and speech acts theory, performative utterances are sentences which not only describe a given reality, but also change the social reality they are describing.

In his 1955 William James lecture series, which were later published under the title How to Do Things with Words, J. L. Austin argued against a positivist philosophical claim that the utterances always "describe" or "constate" something and are thus always true or false. After mentioning several examples of sentences which are not so used, and not truth-evaluable (among them nonsensical sentences, interrogatives, directives and "ethical" propositions), he introduces "performative" sentences or illocutionary act as another instance.[1]

Austin's definition

In order to define performatives, Austin refers to those sentences which conform to the old prejudice in that they are used to describe or constate something, and which thus are true or false; and he calls such sentences "constatives". In contrast to them, Austin defines "performatives" as follows:

(1) Performative utterances are not true or false, that is, not truth-evaluable; instead when something is wrong with them then they are "unhappy", while if nothing is wrong they are "happy".

(2) The uttering of a performative is, or is part of, the doing of a certain kind of action (Austin later deals with them under the name illocutionary acts), the performance of which, again, would not normally be described as just "saying" or "describing" something (cf. Austin 1962, 5).

For example, when Paul says "I promise to do the dishes" in an appropriate context then he thereby does not just say something, and in particular he does not describe what he is doing; rather, in making the utterance he performs the promise; since promising is an illocutionary act, the utterance is thus a performative utterance. If Peter utters the sentence without the intention to keep the promise, or if eventually he does not keep it, then although something is not in order with the utterance, the problem is not that the sentence is false: it is rather "unhappy", or "infelicitous", as Austin also says in his discussion of so-called felicity conditions. In the absence of any such flaw, on the other hand, the utterance is to be assessed as "happy" or "felicitous", rather than as "true". Austin dropped this distinction in favour of a distinction between explicit performatives ("I promise it will never happen again") and primary or implicit performatives ("It will never happen again," functioning as a promise).

The initial examples of performative sentences Austin gives are these:

'I do (sc. take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife)' – as uttered in the course of the marriage ceremony.'I name this ship the "Queen Elizabeth"'

'I give and bequeath my watch to my brother' – as occurring in a will

'I bet you sixpence it will rain tomorrow' (Austin 1962, 5)

As Austin later notices himself, these examples belong (more or less strikingly) to what Austin calls, explicit performatives; to utter an "explicit" performative sentence is to make explicit what act one is performing. However, there are also "implicit", "primitive", or "inexplicit" performatives. When, for instance, one uses the word "Go!" in order to command someone to leave the room then this utterance is part of the performance of a command; and the sentence, according to Austin, is neither true nor false; hence the sentence is a performative; – still, it is not an explicit performative, for it does not make explicit that the act the speaker is performing is a command.

As Austin observes, the acts purported to be performed by performative utterances may be socially contested. For instance, "I divorce you", said three times by a man to his wife, may be accepted to constitute a divorce by some, but not by others.

Examples (mainly of explicit performative utterances)

"I now pronounce you married" – used in the course of a marriage ceremony

"I order you to go", "Go—that's an order"

"Yes" – answering the question "Do you promise to do the dishes?"

"You are under arrest" – used in putting someone under arrest

"I christen you"

"I accept your apology"

"I sentence you to death"

"I divorce you, I divorce you, I divorce you" (Islamic: see: Talaq-i-Bid'ah)[2]

"I do" – wedding

"I swear to do that", "I promise to be there"

"I apologize"

"I dedicate this..." (...book to my wife; ...next song to the striking Stella Doro workers, etc.)

"This meeting is now adjourned", "The court is now in session"

"This church is hereby de-sanctified"

"War is declared"

"I resign" – employment, or chess

"You're [hereby] fired."

LECTURE 5.6

Definition of discourse analysis

The Oxford English Dictionary defines discourse analysis as:

"Linguistics, a method of analysing the structure of texts or utterances longer than one sentence, taking into account both their linguistic content and their sociolinguistic context; analysis performed using this method."

There is a problem, however, not with the wording of this definition, but with the concept itself, which implies that language can have a fixed meaning as the very ethos of discourse analysis is that language and discourse (in the sense of a speech communication) is not a fixed, immutable reality, but one that is moulded by a social context, and can in turn build up a picture of the world which is unique to the author of the discourse.

Discourse analysis as a research technique involves the analysis of language with the above framework in mind, and has become increasingly popular in recent years in the social and management sciences.

More definitions of discourse analysis

According to Snape and Spencer (2003, p. 200), discourse analysis originates from the discipline of sociology and is about:

"Examining the way knowledge is produced within different discourses and the performances, linguistic styles and rhetorical devices used in particular accounts."

According to Jankowicz (2005, p.229), discourse analysis is of particular relevance when listening to people's own narratives of a situation – the biographical approach.

"Discourse analysis ... [focuses] on the way in which your respondents draw on differing interpretive repertoires depending on their interpretation of the context in which your interview takes place. The technique focuses on the way in which language is used in given settings, and in a discourse analysis, your task is to identify the context; the various interpretive repertoires; and attempt a matching of one to the other, to arrive at an understanding of the function, from the point of view of your respondent, of the different stories being told."

In a guest editorial from the Journal of Organizational Change Management which looked at the contribution of discourse analysis to an understanding of organisational change, Grant et al. (2005) quote Fairclough and Wodak (1997, p. 277):

"Discourse is not produced without context and cannot be understood without taking context into consideration ... Discourses are always connected to other discourses which were produced earlier, as well as those which are produced synchronically and subsequently."

In other words, language does not have a fixed, objective meaning, but is coloured by a whole range of situational factors: the author's belief system, the surrounding political, economic and social context, any professional community to which the person belongs – which will have its own jargon (as in medical or legal) – as well as the immediate situation in which the words were uttered.

Herasymovych and Nørreklit (2006) provide a case study of ideological assumptions of Ukrainian managers, in which they use discourse analysis to reveal how attitudes change as a result of the transformation from communism to market liberalism.

The authors found several discourses of:

anti communism ("From Soviet times, there is a common psychology: the best job is the one with the higher salary and doing nothing");

the influence of religion, which is very strong in the Ukraine. Thus although the managers wanted to distance themselves from religion, they still used a discourse of pastoral authority – the image of the good shepherd – to describe their management style;

liberalism, of a certain kind: motivation of the individual to succeed, but based not on desire to do one's best, but fear of the consequences of failure.

Where does discourse analysis fit?

Discourse analysis is an analytic technique rather than a theory, and its popularity has arisen from the growing interest, starting late in the last century, in qualitative research and ways of analysing the data it produces. There are a number of similar methods, for example, content analysis, which analyses content according to key variables,

narrative analysis, which looks at the patterns people find in their lives and situations, and conversational analysis, which looks at the structure of dialogue (for more information, see How to ... analyse qualitative data: some specific techniques).

Discourse analysis has multiple disciplinary origins – sociology, socio-psychology, anthropology, linguistics and philosophy, communications studies, and literature (Grant et al., 2005). It thus brings a multidisciplinary perspective.

Its regard for context sets it slightly apart from ethnographic methods, which, according to Lee and Roth (2006) tend to approach participants' talk and actions at face value. Participant observation often involves the researcher having a relatively "invisible" role, as an observer. In the collection of data for discourse analysis, however, the researcher has a more active role and may "co-construct" the interview process.

It can also be contrasted with behaviourist and cognitivist approaches: discourse is not just a product of a person's cognitive and mental state. Thinking makes use of concepts, and concepts are by definition in the public domain, influenced by a broad range of social and intellectual factors. discourse analysis is also influenced by social

constructionism: people and their doings are not "natural observable facts", but are constantly shaped by the society around them.

Some prominent thinkers in discourse analysis
Many writers have contributed to the field of discourse analysis, but two of the most prominent are Norman Fairclough and Michel Foucault.

Norman Fairclough is the father of critical discourse analysis. He comes to discourse analysis from a linguistics and language perspective; he is emeritus professor in the Department of Linguistics and English Language at the University of Lancaster, UK.

Fairclough sees discourse as:

"a social practice which constructs social identities, social relations and the knowledge and meaning systems of the social world ... [which] both reflects and produces the ideas and assumptions relating to the ways in which personal identities, social relations, and knowledge systems are constituted through social practice" (Nielson and Nørreklit, 2009; p. 204).

In other words, critical discourse analysis sees the language of discourse as a kind of two-way mirror: it both reflects and contributes to the social world, its knowledge systems and its social relationships.

There are two dimensions to critical discourse analysis: the "communicative event", or the specific incident of language use, and that which Fairclough terms "discourse order", which is the "discourse practices" or the way language is used within a particular social institution (for example, the particular vocabulary used within an organisation) or domain area (for example, linguistics, sociology, or medicine).

Critical discourse analysis uses three levels of analysis (Nielson and Nørreklit, 2009; p. 205):

The text of the communicative event itself, with reference to its vocabulary, its use of metaphor and rhetorical forms, its grammar and the relationship between sentences, the types of argument used.
The discourse practice – i.e. how the particular communicative event changes or copies existing practice within that particular discourse.
The wider social practice of which the communicative event forms part.

Critical discourse analysis combines an "internal" study of language with "external" study of its context – how the text is affected by social practices and relations (Cheng, 2009). The term "intertextuality" is often used – which means the need for one text to be read in the light of its allusions to and differences from the content or structure of other texts. Critical discourse analysis can often be used to reveal power relationships, and how certain groups can be marginalised.

Nielson and Nørreklit (2009) apply critical discourse analysis to the field of management coaching, which they depict diagrammatically in Figure 1 as follows:

Image: Figure 1. Model of critical discourse analysis as applied to management coaching.

Figure 1. Model of critical discourse analysis as applied to management coaching
The approach of Michel Foucault, the French philosopher, sociologist and historian, is more abstract and less linguistically based than that of Fairclough. Although he acknowledged the role of language in the creation and formation of knowledge, he was not concerned with the analysis of spoken and written language and texts. He was more interested in the rules that determine which statements are accepted as meaningful, and the links between power and knowledge: expert knowledge in a particular domain can act as a system of control, and knowledge is institutionally contingent (Haider and Bawden, 2007).

Applications of discourse analysis
Discourse analysis is used in a wide range of fields. A search [October 2009] of Emerald's journal database content (all fields excluding fulltext) for the phrase "discourse analysis" over the last ten years produced results with the following distribution:

Organisational change and organisational studies – 10.
Corporate social responsibility – 5.
Employee development and human resource development – 7.
Education – 3.
Entrepreneurship – 3.
Accountancy – 9.
Library and information management – 6.
Gender issues and diversity – 7.
Political economy – 2.
Hospitality – 2.

Marketing, market research, and corporate communications – 7.

Sociology and social work – 4.

Miscellaneous (gaming, law, supervenience, quality, nutrition, psychopathology, virtual communities, health care) – 8.

It is interesting that there are in this sample almost as many accountancy papers as there are ones on organisational change. Several of the top journals in their fields are represented – Journal of Organizational Change Management (6), Accounting, Auditing & Accountability Journal (6), Journal of Documentation (4), European Journal of Marketing (1).

Methods of collecting the data included document analysis, interviews, group discussion, case studies, and ethnography; the data are drawn from a variety of different types of "talk" and "text".

"Talk" examples

Interviews, often described as "semi-structured" or "in-depth", are the most common method of soliciting talk. Examples include: research on consumers' shopping experiences (Sitz, 2008), and a case study of new-start entrepreneurs in New Zealand (Mills and Pawson, 2006).

Longitudinal case studies with repeat interviews of primary school co-principals were carried out by Court (2004).

Ethnographic research: e.g. interview in a social context to understand workplace practice (Lee and Roth, 2006); shadowing managers and observing them interacting with their work colleagues (Rigg, 2005); observation of training and training-related events, in conjunction with interviews (Chio, 2008); reflective journals (in conjunction with interviews) used to study workplace learning (Jurasaite-Harbison, 2009).

Discussion in a documentary programme, e.g. one on a model of sustainability for Australia (Clulow, 2005).

Netnography – an ethnographic research method used to observe behaviour in an online environment, e.g. a web-based discussion forum on fantasy sport (Smith et al., 2006), using net chat to research the sensitive topic of cosmetic surgery (Langer and Beckman, 2005); chat on health care (Misra et al., 2008).

Focus groups: e.g. used as a method to study managers in a small-to-medium enterprise (O'Shea, 2007); institutionalisation in community organisations (O'Shea, 2007)

LECTURE 7

Grice's most influential contribution to philosophy and linguistics is his theory of implicature, which started in his 1961 article, 'The Causal Theory of Perception', and was most fully developed in his 1967 "Logic and Conversation", at Harvard's 'William James Lectures'.[19]

Saying/implicating distinction

According to Grice, what a speaker means by an utterance can be divided into what the speaker "says" and what the speaker thereby "implicates".[20]

Grice makes it clear that the notion of saying he has in mind, though related to a colloquial sense of the word, is somewhat technical, referring to it as "a favored notion of 'saying' that must be further elucidated".[21] Nonetheless, Grice never settled on a full elucidation or definition of his favoured notion of saying, and the interpretation of this notion has become a contentious issue in the philosophy of language.

One point of controversy surrounding Grice's favoured notion of saying is the connection between it and his concept of utterer's meaning. Grice makes it clear that he takes saying to be a kind of meaning, in the sense that doing the former entails doing the latter: "I want to say that (1) "U (utterer) said that p" entails (2) "U did something x by which U meant that p" (87).[22] This condition is controversial, but Grice argues that apparent counterexamples—cases in which a speaker apparently says something without meaning it—are actually examples of what he calls "making as if to say", which can be thought of as a kind of "mock saying" or "play saying".[23]

Another point of controversy surrounding Grice's notion of saying is the relationship between what a speaker says with an expression and the expression's timeless meaning. Although he attempts to spell out the connection in detail several times,[24] the most precise statement that he endorses is the following one:

In the sense in which I am using the word say, I intend what someone has said to be closely related to the conventional meaning of the words (the sentence) he has uttered.[25]

Unfortunately, Grice never spelled out what he meant by the phrase "closely related" in this passage, and philosophers of language continue to debate over its best interpretation.

In 'The Causal Theory of Perception', Grice contrasts saying (which he there also calls "stating") with "implying", but in Logic and Conversation he introduces the technical term "implicature" and its cognates "to implicate" and "implicatum" (i.e., that which is implicated).[26] Grice justifies this neologism by saying that "'Implicature' is a blanket word to avoid having to make choices between words like 'imply', 'suggest', 'indicate', and 'mean'".[21]

Grice sums up these notions by suggesting that to implicate is to perform a "non-central" speech act, whereas to say is to perform a "central" speech act.[27] As others have more commonly put the same distinction, saying is a kind of "direct" speech act whereas implicating is an "indirect" speech act. This latter way of drawing the distinction is an important part of John Searle's influential theory of speech acts.[28]

Conventional vs. conversational implicatureEdit

Although Grice is best known for his theory of conversational implicature, he also introduced the notion of conventional implicature. The difference between the two lies in the fact that what a speaker conventionally implicates by uttering a sentence is tied in some way to the timeless meaning of part of the sentence, whereas what a speaker conversationally implicates is not directly connected with timeless meaning. Grice's best-known example of conventional implicature involves the word 'but', which, he argues, differs in meaning from the word 'and' only in that we typically conventionally implicate something over and above what we say with the former but not with the latter. In uttering the sentence 'She was poor but she was honest', for example, we say merely that she was poor and she was honest, but we implicate that poverty contrasts with honesty (or that her poverty contrasts with her honesty).[29]

Grice makes it clear that what a speaker conventionally implicates by uttering a sentence is part of what the speaker means in uttering it, and that it is also closely connected to what the sentence means. Nonetheless, what a speaker conventionally implicates is not a part of what the speaker says.

U's doing x might be his uttering the sentence "She was poor but she was honest". What U meant, and what the sentence means, will both contain something contributed by the word "but", and I do not want this contribution to appear in an

account of what (in my favored sense) U said (but rather as a conventional implicature).[27]

Grice did not elaborate much on the notion of conventional implicature, but many other authors have tried to give more extensive theories of it, including Lauri Karttunen and Stanley Peters,[30] Kent Bach,[31] Stephen Neale,[32] and Christopher Potts.[33]

Conversational implicature   Edit
To conversationally implicate something in speaking, according to Grice, is to mean something that goes beyond what one says in such a way that it must be inferred from non-linguistic features of a conversational situation together with general principles of communication and co-operation.

The general principles Grice proposed are what he called the Cooperative principle and the Maxims of Conversation. According to Grice, the cooperative principle is a norm governing all cooperative interactions among humans.

Cooperative Principle: "Make your contribution such as it is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged." (Grice 1989: 26).

The conversational maxims can be thought of as precisifications of the cooperative principle that deal specifically with communication.

Maxim of Quantity: Information

Make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange.
Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.
Maxim of Quality: Truth

Do not say what you believe to be false.
Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.
Maxim of Relation: Relevance

Be relevant.
Maxim of Manner: Clarity ("be perspicuous")

Avoid obscurity of expression.

Avoid ambiguity.

Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

Be orderly.[34]

Grice follows his summary of the maxims by suggesting that "one might need others", and goes on to say that "There are, of course, all sorts of other maxims (aesthetic, social, or moral in character), such as "Be polite", that are also normally observed by participants in exchanges, and these may also generate nonconventional implicatures."[35]

Conversational implicatures are made possible, according to Grice, by the fact that the participants in a conversation always assume each other to behave according to the maxims. So, when a speaker appears to have violated a maxim by saying or making as if to say something that is false, uninformative or too informative, irrelevant, or unclear, the assumption that the speaker is in fact obeying the maxims causes the interpreter to infer a hypothesis about what the speaker really meant.[36] That an interpreter will reliably do this allows speakers to intentionally "flout" the maxims—i.e., create the appearance of breaking the maxims in a way that is obvious to both speaker and interpreter—to get their implicatures across.[36]

Perhaps Grice's best-known example of conversational implicature is the case of the reference letter, a "quantity implicature" (i.e., because it involves flouting the first maxim of Quantity):

A is writing a testimonial about a pupil who is a candidate for a philosophy job, and his letter reads as follows: "Dear Sir, Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance at tutorials has been regular. Yours, etc." (Gloss: A cannot be opting out, since if he wished to be uncooperative, why write at all? He cannot be unable, through ignorance, to say more, since the man is his pupil; moreover, he knows that more information than this is wanted. He must, therefore, be wishing to impart information that he is reluctant to write down. This supposition is tenable only if he thinks Mr. X is no good at philosophy. This, then, is what he is implicating.)[37]

Given that a speaker means a given proposition p by a given utterance, Grice suggests several features which p must possess to count as a conversational implicature.

Nondetachability: "The implicature is nondetachable insofar as it is not possible to find another way of saying the same thing (or approximately the same thing) which simply lacks the implicature."[38]

Cancelability: "...a putative conversational implicature is explicitly cancelable if, to the form of words the utterance of which putatively implicates that p, it is admissible to add but not p, or I do not mean to imply that p, and it is contextually cancelable if one can find situations in which the utterance of the form of words would simply not carry the implicature."[39]

Non-Conventionality: "...conversational implicata are not part of the meaning of the expressions to the employment of which they attach."[39]

Calculability: "The presence of a conversational implicature must be capable of being worked out; for even if it can in fact be intuitively grasped, unless the intuition is replaceable by an argument, the implicature (if present at all) will not count as a conversational implicature; it will be a conventional implicature."[40]

Generalized vs. particularised conversational implicature   Edit
Grice also distinguishes between generalised and particularised conversational implicature. Grice says that particularised conversational implicatures (such as in the reference letter case quoted above) arise in "cases in which an implicature is carried by saying that p on a particular occasion in virtue of special features about the context, cases in which there is no room for the idea that an implicature of this sort is normally carried by saying that p."[41] Generalized implicature, by contrast, arise in cases in which "one can say that the use of a certain form of words in an utterance would normally (in the absence of special circumstances) carry such-and-such an implicature or type of implicature."[41] Grice does not offer a full theory of generalised conversational implicatures that distinguishes them from particularlised conversational implicatures, on one hand, and from conventional implicatures, on the other hand, but later philosophers and linguists have attempted to expand on the idea of generalised conversational implicatures.[42]

LECTURE 8

Grice's Cooperative Principle

Task A - What is Grice's Cooperative Principle in Conversation?

We will use Paul Grice's (1975) influential 'Cooperative Principle' approach to describe how we infer unstated meanings in ordinary conversations and apply this to dramatic conversations.

Your role in this task is to read and understand. Then, in subsequent tasks we will apply Gricean analysis to a series of brief examples to help you understand how to apply Gricean analysis.

Conversational cooperation

Grice says that when we communicate we assume, without realising it, that we, and the people we are talking to, will be conversationally cooperative - we will cooperate to achieve mutual conversational ends. This conversational cooperation even works when we are not being cooperative socially. So, for example, we can be arguing with one another angrily and yet we will still cooperate quite a lot conversationally to achieve the argument. This conversational cooperation manifests itself, according to Grice, in a number of conversational MAXIMS, as he calls them, which we feel the need to abide by. These maxims look at first sight like rules, but they appear to be broken more often than grammatical or phonological rules are, for example, as we will see later, and this is why Grice uses the term 'maxim' rather than 'rule'. Here are the four maxims (there may well be more) which Grice says we all try to adhere to in conversation. You can click on each one and get an explanatory comment:

The conversational maxims

Maxim of quantity (quantity of information)
  Give the most helpful amount of information.

This maxim is a bit like the temperature of baby bear's porridge in Goldilocks and the Three Bears - not too much, not too little, but just right! You may often feel that we are guilty of giving you too much information on this website. But we are trying to be helpful, honest!

Maxim of quality (quality of information)
  Do not say what you believe to be false.

It may seem at first sight that it would be simpler for this maxim to be 'Tell the truth'. But it is often difficult to be sure about what is true, and so Grice formulates this maxim in a way that, although it looks more complicated, is actually easier to follow. Evidence of the strength of this maxim is that most people find it difficult to lie when asked a direct question, and we tend to believe what people tell us without thinking, especially if it is written down (presumably because writers normally have more time than speakers to consider carefully what they say).

Maxim of relation
  Be relevant.

Note that if you join a conversation you can't just begin to talk about whatever you like. You have to connect what you want to say (make it relevant) to what is already being talked about. For example if everyone else is talking about their holidays and you want to talk about Spain, you'll need to connect the two topics together with a remark like 'I went on holiday to Spain last year . . .' Similarly, if, in an exam, you write an essay on a topic slightly different from the question asked you are likely to lose marks.

Maxim of manner
  Put what you say in the clearest, briefest, and most orderly manner.

Good evidence for this maxim is what you get penalised for when you write essays. If your are vague or ambiguous (i.e. not clear) you can lose marks; if you are over-wordy you can lose marks (readers don't like having to read extra words when they don't have to); if you do not present what you say in the most sensible order for your argument you can lose marks. And although you don't lose marks in conversation, you can lose friends if you do not abide by these maxims.

Breaking the maxims
We have already pointed out that the conversational maxims are broken rather more often than lingustic rules (e.g. in grammar). We can break the conversational maxims in two main ways:

We can VIOLATE them
This means that we break the maxims surreptitiously, or covertly, so that other people do not know. If we violate the maxim of quality, we lie. If we violate the maxim of quantity by not giving enough information, if someone finds out we can be accused of 'being economical with the truth', another deceit. If you like, violating

the maxims amounts to breaking them 'illegally', just as people who steal are guilty of laws concerning theft. As with laws, some maxim violations can be more more heinous than others. Lying in a court of law is disapproved, but 'white lies', small lies to keep the social peace, are often thought as acceptable.

We can FLOUT them

If we FLOUT a maxim, we break it in a FLAGRANT (and often foregrounded) way, so that it is obvious to all concerned that it has been broken. If this happens, then it is clear that the speaker is intending the hearer to infer some extra meaning over and above what is said (evidence for this is that people of say things like 'He said he was happy, but the way he said it implied he wasn't really'. Grice distinguishes what he calls 'sentence meaning' from 'utterer's meaning' and he refers to an utterer's meaning indicated through a flout as an IMPLICATURE. So the implicature is what we have been referring to so far as the 'extra meaning'.

Re-examining the examples we have already looked at

It is the flouting of maxims which constitute their 'extra-breaking' character, as compared with linguistic rules. Essentially maxim-flouting is conversationally cooperative because all the participants in the conversation can see that a maxim has been broken on purpose by the speaker or writer in order to create an extra layer of meaning which is accessible by inference.

In the following tasks we will look again at the two examples we have already considered on the 'Inference and the discourse architecture of drama' page. In each case when we analyse a text or discourse we will need to consider (1) what maxim(s) have been broken, (2) whether the break constitutes a violation or a flout and (3) what implicature, if any, arises as a result of the break. Of course we have already covered (3) in the answers to the exercises on the 'Inference and the discourse architecture of drama' page, so we don't need to go through that again in any detail.

Reference

Grice, H. P. (1975) 'Logic and conversation'. In P. Cole and J. Morgan (eds) Studies in Syntax and Semantics III: Speech Acts, New York: Academic Press, pp. 183-98.

LECTURE 9

Implicature

An implicature is something the speaker suggests or implies with an utterance, even though it is not literally expressed. Implicatures can aid in communicating more efficiently than by explicitly saying everything we want to communicate.[1] This phenomenon is part of pragmatics, a subdiscipline of linguistics. The philosopher H. P. Grice coined the term in 1975. Grice distinguished conversational implicatures, which arise because speakers are expected to respect general rules of conversation, and conventional ones, which are tied to certain words such as "but" or "therefore".[2] Take for example the following exchange:

A (to passer by): I am out of gas.

B: There is a gas station 'round the corner.

Here, B does not say, but conversationally implicates, that the gas station is open, because otherwise his utterance would not be relevant in the context.[3][4] Conversational implicatures are classically seen as contrasting with entailments: They are not necessary or logical consequences of what is said, but are defeasible (cancellable).[5][6] So, B could continue without contradiction:

B: But unfortunately it's closed today.

An example of a conventional implicature is "Donovan is poor but happy", where the word "but" implicates a sense of contrast between being poor and being happy.[7]

Later linguists introduced refined and different definitions of the term, leading to somewhat different ideas about which parts of the information conveyed by an utterance are actually implicatures and which aren't.[8][9]

Conversational implicature

Grice was primarily concerned with conversational implicatures. Like all implicatures, these are part of what is communicated. In other words, conclusions the addressee draws from an utterance although they were not actively conveyed by the communicator are never implicatures. According to Grice, conversational implicatures arise because communicating people are expected by their addressees to obey the maxims of conversation and the overarching cooperative principle, which basically states that people are expected to communicate in a cooperative, helpful way.[10][11]

The cooperative principle

Make your contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged.

The maxims of conversation

The maxim of Quality

try to make your contribution one that is true, specifically:

(i) do not say what you believe to be false

(ii) do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

The maxim of Quantity

(i) make your contribution as informative as is required for the current purposes of the exchange

(ii) do not make your contribution more informative than is required

The maxim of Relation (or Relevance)

make your contributions relevant

The maxim of Manner

be perspicuous, and specifically:

(i) avoid obscurity

(ii) avoid ambiguity

(iii) be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity)

(iv) be orderly

— Grice (1975:26–27), Levinson (1983:100–102)

Standard implicatures   Edit

The simplest situation is where the addressee can draw conclusions from the assumption that the communicator obeys the maxims, as in the following examples. The symbol "+>" means "implicates".[12]

Quality

It is raining. +> I believe, and have adequate evidence, that it is raining.

Moore's paradox, the observation that the sentence "It is raining, but I don't believe that it is raining" sounds contradictory although it isn't from a strictly logical point of view, has been explained as a contradiction to this type of implicature. However, as implicatures can be cancelled (see below), this explanation is dubious.[12]

Quantity (i)

A well-known class of quantity implicatures are the scalar implicatures. Prototypical examples include words specifying quantities such as "some", "few", or "many":[13][14]

John ate some of the cookies. +> John didn't eat all of the cookies.

Here, the use of "some" semantically entails that more than one cookie was eaten. It does not entail, but implicates, that not every cookie was eaten, or at least that the speaker does not know whether any cookies are left. The reason for this implicature is that saying "some" when one could say "all" would be less than informative enough in most circumstances. The general idea is that the communicator is expected to make the strongest possible claim, implicating the negation of any stronger claim. Lists of expressions that give rise to scalar implicatures, sorted from strong to weak, are known as Horn scales:[13][15]

⟨all, many, some, few⟩

⟨..., four, three, two, one⟩ (cardinal number terms)

⟨always, often, sometimes⟩

⟨and, or⟩

⟨necessarily, possibly⟩

⟨hot, warm⟩

etc.

Negation reverses these scales, as in this example:

She won't necessarily get the job. +> She will possibly get the job.

"Not possibly" is stronger than "not necessarily", and the implicature follows from the double negation "She will not [not possibly] get the job".[6]

Here are some further implicatures that can be classified as scalar:[16]

I slept on a boat yesterday. +> The boat was not mine.

This is a common construction where the indefinite article indicates that the referent is not closely associated with the speaker, because the stronger claim "I slept on my boat yesterday" is not made.[17]

The flag is green. +> The flag is completely green.

If this is the strongest possible claim, it follows that the flag has no other features, because "The flag is green and some other colour" would be stronger. In other words, if it did contain other features, this utterance would not be informative enough.[12]

Quantity (ii)

The second quantity maxim seems to work in the opposite direction as the first; the communicator makes a weaker claim, from which a stronger one is implicated. Implicatures arising from this maxim enrich the information contained in the utterance:[18]

He drank a bottle of vodka and fell into a stupor. +> He drank a bottle of vodka and consequently fell into a stupor.

I lost a book yesterday. +> The book was mine.

There is extensive literature, but no consensus on the question which of the two quantity maxims is in operation in which circumstances; i.e. why "I lost a book yesterday" implicates that the book was the speaker's, while "I slept on a boat yesterday" usually implicates that the boat wasn't the speaker's.[9]

Relation/relevance

That cake looks delicious. +> I would like a piece of that cake.

This statement taken by itself would be irrelevant in most situations, so the addressee concludes that the speaker had something more in mind.

The introductory example also belongs here:[3]

A: I am out of gas.

B: There is a gas station 'round the corner. +> The gas station is open.

Manner (iv)

The cowboy jumped on his horse and rode into the sunset. +> The cowboy performed these two actions in this order.

Being orderly includes relating events in the order they occurred.[12]

Clashes of maxims   Edit

Sometimes it is impossible to obey all maxims at once. Suppose that A and B are planning a holiday in France and A suggests they visit their old acquaintance Gérard:

A: Where does Gérard live?

B: Somewhere in the South of France. +> B does not know where exactly Gérard lives.

B's answer violates the first maxim of quantity as it does not contain sufficient information to plan their route. But if B does not know the exact location, she cannot obey this maxim and also the maxim of quality; hence the implicature.[19]

The maxims can also be blatantly disobeyed or flouted, giving rise to another kind of conversational implicature. This is possible because addressees will go to great lengths in saving their assumption that the communicator did in fact – perhaps on a deeper level – obey the maxims and the cooperative principle. Many figures of speech can be explained by this mechanism.[20][21]

Quality (i)

Saying something that is obviously false can produce irony, meiosis, hyperbole and metaphor:[20]

When she heard about the rumour, she exploded.

As it is improbable that she really exploded, and it is highly unlikely that the speaker wanted to lie or was simply mistaken, the addressee has to assume the utterance was meant to be metaphorical.

Quantity (i)

Utterances that are not informative on the surface include tautologies. They have no logical content and hence no entailments, but can still be used to convey information via implicatures:[20]

War is war.

Damning with faint praise also works by flouting the first quantity maxim. Consider the following testimonial for a student:

Dear Sir, Mr. X's command of English is excellent, and his attendance at tutorials has been regular. Yours, etc.

The implicature here is that the student is no good, since the teacher has nothing better to say about him.[21]

Relation/relevance

B's answer in the following exchange does not seem to be relevant, so A concludes that B wanted to convey something else:[20]

A: Mrs Jenkins is an old windbag, don't you think?

B: Lovely weather for March, isn't it? +> Watch out, her nephew is standing right behind you![22] (or the like)

Manner (iii)

This utterance is much more long-winded than "Miss Singer sang an aria from Rigoletto" and therefore flouts the maxim "Be brief":[20]

Miss Singer produced a series of sounds corresponding closely to the score of an aria from Rigoletto. +> What Miss Singer produced cannot really be described as an aria from Rigoletto.

Particularized versus generalized implicatures   Edit

Conversational implicatures that arise only in specific contexts are called particularized, while those that are not or only slightly context dependent are generalized.[23] Many of the examples above rely on some context, making them particularized implicatures: thus, "War is war" can refer to different properties of war, or things expected to happen during war, depending on the situation in which it is uttered. Prototypical examples of generalized implicatures are the scalar implicatures.[13] Particularized implicatures are by far the more common kind.[24]

Grice attributed a number of properties to conversational implicatures:[25]

They are defeasible (cancellable), meaning that the implicature may be cancelled by further information or context.[26] Take the examples from above:

That cake looks delicious. +> I would like a piece of that cake.

versus: That cake looks delicious, but it looks too rich for me. (implicature defeated)

A: Did John eat some of the cookies?

B: He certainly did eat some of the cookies. In fact he ate them all.

They are usually non-detachable in the sense that they cannot be "detached" by rephrasing the utterance, as they are consequences of the meaning and not the wording. The obvious exception are implicatures following from the maxim of manner, which explicitly relies on the phrasing.[27] Thus, the following utterances have the same implicature as above:

That fruit cake there looks appetizing.

The dessert you brought is really mouthwatering.

Conversational implicatures are calculable: they are supposed to be formally derivable from the literal meaning of the utterance in combination with the cooperative principle and the maxims, as well as contextual information and background knowledge.[28][29]

They are non-conventional, that is, they are not part of the "conventional" (lexical and logical) meaning of a sentence.[29]

Lastly, they can be context dependent, as mentioned above.[29]

Opting out of the cooperative principle   Edit

The cooperative principle and the maxims of conversation are not mandatory. A communicator can choose not to be cooperative; she can opt out of the cooperative principle by giving appropriate clues such as saying "My lips are sealed", or for example during a cross-examination at court. In such situations, no conversational implicatures arise.[30][31]

Modifications to Grice's maxims   Edit

Laurence Horn

Various modifications to Grice's maxims have been proposed by other linguists, the so-called neo-Griceans.[6] Laurence Horn's approach keeps the maxims of quality and replaces the other maxims with just two principles:

The Q-principle: Make your contribution sufficient; say as much as you can (given the quality maxims and the R-principle).

The R-principle: Make your contribution necessary; say no more than you must (given the Q-principle).

The Q-principle replaces the first quantity maxim ("make your contribution as informative as is required") and the first and second manner maxims ("avoid obscurity and ambiguity"), and is taken to serve the interests of the hearer, who wants as much information as possible. It thus gives rise to the classical scalar implicatures. The R-principle subsumes the second quantity maxim ("do not make your contribution more informative than is required"), the maxim of relation, and the remaining manner maxims ("be brief and orderly"), and serves the interests of the speaker, who wants to communicate with as little effort as possible. These two principles have opposite effects analogous to Grice's two maxims of quantity.[32][33]

To determine which of the two principles is used, Horn introduces the concept of division of pragmatic labor: unmarked (shorter, standard, more lexicalized) phrasings tend to R-implicate a standard meaning, and marked (more wordy, unusual, less lexicalized) phrasings tend to Q-implicate a nonstandard meaning:[34]

She stopped the machine. +> She stopped the machine in the usual way. (R-implicature: a stronger, more specific claim is implicated)

She got the machine to stop. +> She did not stop the machine in the usual way. (Q-implicature: the stronger claim is negated, as with scalar implicatures)

Horn's account has been criticised for misrepresenting the speaker's and hearer's interests: realistically, the hearer does not want a lot of information but just the relevant information; and the speaker is more interested in being understood than in having little work to do. Furthermore, as in Grice's theory, there is often no explanation for when which of the two principles is used, i.e. why "I lost a book yesterday" has the Q-implicature, or scalar implicature, that the book was the speaker's, while "I slept on a boat yesterday" R-implicates that the boat wasn't the speaker's.[33]

Stephen Levinson

Stephen Levinson's approach is similar to Horn's. His Q-principle is basically the same, but its antagonist, the I-principle, only takes the place of the second quantity maxim. There is a separate M-principle more or less corresponding to the third and fourth manner maxims, as well as to Horn's division of pragmatic labor; but there is no replacement for the maxim of relation.[35][36][37]

The M-principle: Indicate abnormal, nonstereotypical situations by using marked expressions that contrast with those you would use to describe the corresponding normal, stereotypical situations.[38]

Levinson subsequently developed a theory of generalized conversational implicature (GCI) based on the Q-principle. He argues that GCIs are distinct from particularized conversational implicatures in that they are inferred via a specialized set of principles and rules that are always in force, independent of the context. If a GCI does not arise in some specific situations, this is because it is blocked under certain circumstances according to Levinson.[39][40]

LECTURE 10,11

The Concepts of "Politeness" as a communicative-pragmatic category

Politeness has become an important topic since Brown and Levinson's theory of politeness was first published in 1978, which has engendered energetic, continuous research in this area. In the past three decades, politeness phenomena have been widely observed by many researchers and scholars studying intercultural communication, sociolinguistics, psychology, psycholinguistics, applied linguistics, and pragmatics.

Kasper (1990) summarized the work of Lakoff (1973), Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), and Leech (1983) as follows: "Politeness is viewed as a rational, rule-governed, pragmatic aspect of speech that is rooted in the human need to maintain relationships and avoid conflicts."(p.194) By being mutually supportive and avoiding threats to face, according to the standard argument, speakers maintain smooth relations and sustain successful communication. The underlying rational, motivation, and functional foundations of politeness are assumed to

be, to some extent, universal, and are assumed to influence, and be reflected in, various modes of speech in many different languages and cultures (Brown and Levinson, 1987). According to Brown (1980, p. 114),"What politeness essentially consists in is a special way of treating people, saying and doing things in such a way as to take into account the other person's feelings." Linguistic politeness, then, reflects cultural values. Correctly identifying polite behavior in a culture involves understanding the society's values (Holmes, 1995). As discussed by Ide, Hill, Carnes, Ogino, and Kawasaki (1992, p. 282), "Concepts of politeness thus defined by researchers may be applicable to any possible culture. However, we cannot assume that the concept of 'politeness' is fully equivalent to the concepts of corresponding terms in other languages, since language itself is the door to a concept in people's minds." That is, the range of behaviors deemed polite in American or British society, for example, may be quite different from the behaviors described by the word "teinei"(politeness) in Japanese and the expression "you limao" (politeness) in Chinese.

There is a growing awareness that the term "politeness" needs to be defined more precisely and consistently if more fruitful cross-cultural research on politeness is to be pursued (c.f. Watts, Ide and Ehlich, 1992a). Using native-speaker judgments, Ide, Hill, Carnes, Ogino, and Kawasaki (1992) demonstrated that among groups of American English and Japanese speakers, the seemingly corresponding terms "polite" and teineina differ in their conceptual structure. According to their study,

"for the American subjects, the adjectives 'polite' and 'friendly' correlate highly when applied to certain behaviors in specific situations. For Japanese subjects, however, teineina (polite) and shitashigena (friendly) fall into different dimensions when applied to the same cross-culturally equivalent situations." (p.292-293)

Mao (1994) stated the relationship between Chinese face and politeness (Limao): " More specifically, to be polite, that is, you Limao (polite) in Chinese discourse is, in many respects, to know how to attend to each other's mianzi and lian and to enact speech acts appropriate to and worthy of such an image. Otherwise stated, mainland Chinese speakers can be seen as being polite if they demonstrate with words their knowledge of mianzi and lian (Chinese face), such a demonstration tends to epitomize politeness in the eyes of their discourse partners. " (p. 463) In a word, the closest Chinese equivalent to the English word "politeness" is "Limao."

What is the emic notion of politeness in Janan? English-Japanese dictionaries generally define the word using expressions such as "*reigitadashisa*", "*teichousa*", "*omoiyari*", "*teineisa*" (language), "*teinei(sa)*", and "*poraitonesu*" (politeness). According to Haugh (2007):

The emic notion of 'politeness' in Japanese can be approached, in the first instance, from the perspective of two key lexemes: *teinei* and *reigi* (*tadashii*). According to the Kojien dictionary, *teinei* is defined as "to be warm and correct in one's *reigi*" and "to be attentive in what one does" (*teatsuku reigi tadashii koto* and *chui-bukaku kokoro ga yukitodoku koto*) (Shinmura, 1998, p. 1818), while the main sense of reigi relating to politeness is "the behavioral forms and patterns that people ought to preserve in order to protect the order of social life, in particular, manners/etiquette which express 'upward' respect" (*shakaiseikatsu no chitsujo o tamotsu tameni hito ga mamorubeki koto yoshiki, tokuni kei'i o arawasu saho*) (Shinmura, 1998, p. 2827). An initial analysis of these two lexemes thus indicates that *teinei* involves being warm-hearted (*teatsuku*) and attentive (*chui-bukaku*) (Shinmura, 1998, p. 1818), while *reigi tadashii* involves showing upward-looking respect (*kei'i*) towards others (Shinmura, 1998, p. 2827). "

Language usage plays a large role in Japanese politeness. The use of keigo (honorific forms) is a major strategy in demonstrating politeness in Japan (Ogawa & Gudykunst, 1999- 2000). Japanese scholars speculate that it developed from terms used to praise God, terms used to avoid taboos, and other types of expressions. The use of beautiful language toward God was thought to bring happiness to people through the magical power of language, thus functioning as a positive strategy. Honorific forms also originated from expressions referring to something or someone of high status. As these expressions were used repeatedly over time, they

became conventional grammatical forms and crystallized into a system of honorific forms.

The long and the short of it is that Chinese and Japanese have long been known as the "land of ceremony and propriety". However, there has been little study on native-speaker beliefs about politeness or on a number of important questions:

- What is people's understanding of the concept politeness in communicative behavior in different cultural contexts?
- How do Chinese and Japanese young people perceive the concept of politeness?
- What differences are there between the Chinese and Japanese understanding of politeness?

Interviews and questionnaires focusing on native-speaker beliefs about (im)politeness are another valuable source of insight into the emic perspective (Haugh, 2007, p. 661). The aims of this study are: (a) to provide useful insights into the ideas and traditional moral values of young people on which politeness behavior is based in both countries, (b) to analyze actual data from questionnaires, and (c) to analyze the results from the standpoint of gender. The specific purpose of this study was to discover how the emic concept of politeness differs between Chinese and Japanese.

1. **Methodology**

   Participants

A questionnaire was filled out by 320 college students: 160 Chinese students (55 males, 105 females) enrolled at universities in Beijing (March 2009) and 160 Japanese students (55 males, 105 females) enrolled at universities in Tokyo (November 2008), and Toyama and Kanazawa (May 2009). Their ages ranged from 17 to 28 years.

   Material and Procedure

This study employed a written questionnaire. The Japanese questionnaire surveyed current conceptualizations of what constitutes teinei (Japanese politeness), according to university students, and was taken from Marui , Nishijima, Noro, Reinelt & Yamashita (1996). It was translated into Chinese. The survey allowed us to plot the concepts of communicative behavior concerning

politeness, teinei, and limao (Chinese politeness) against other concepts in English, Japanese, and Chinese that assess human behavior. Thus, Chinese and Japanese versions of the questionnaire were prepared. In order to avoid the distortions of direct translation, bilingual and bicultural speakers discussed the translation and verified the accuracy of the final form. Some of the questions on the questionnaire were multiple-choice, but most allowed the students to respond freely. This paper concerns findings based on Questions 28, the final question of the questionnaire.

English: Finally, when you hear the word "politeness", what initially comes to mind?
Please write down some of the things you think of.
Japanese:
では最後に、「丁寧」という語を聞いて、あなたはまず何を思い浮かべますか？思い當たることばをいくつでも書いて下さい。
Chinese:
最後，當聽到「禮貌」這個詞時，你首先聯想到什麼？請寫下你聯想到的幾個詞語。

2. Results

In order to examine differences between Chinese and Japanese males and females, the analysis of the data obtained from the written questionnaire involved first separating the responses by gender. Then, qualitative differences among the responses were obtained by grouping them into specific categories. This analysis revealed great variety in the types of responses. Below, similarities and differences in politeness described by Chinese and Japanese students are examined.

Chinese students gave sixteen types of answers. Most associated politeness with "honorifics and polite expressions", "good breeding", "polite behavior", "ceremony and propriety", and "refined and cultured". Male Chinese (Table 1) gave thirteen types of answers: They used expressions such as "honorifics and polite expressions" (33.3%), "good breeding" (19.0%), "polite behavior", "ceremony and propriety" (19.0%), and "sense of morality" (6.3%).

3. Conclusion

The Asia-centric focus of this study is important for future research on politeness. This study is a contribution to research on politeness. Especially, using native-speaker judgments, the comparative study of intercultural politeness in Chinese and Japanese verbal communication is a very interesting and important theme. The concepts of politeness discussed here validate many opinions of Chinese and Japanese students regarding cultural awareness and evaluated concepts of self concerning politeness. Polite expressions, beautification language, and polite behavior continue the Asian social-perspective tradition of politeness from the standpoint of present–day Chinese and Japanese young people. Linguistic communication requires that interlocutors understand each other's utterances. It will be necessary to do a similar analysis of intercultural politeness in other societies in the future to examine how to improve cooperation through an understanding of communicative behavior. Speakers from different cultures or linguistic backgrounds will produce a given expression differently. Further research on concepts of politeness in intercultural communication should more fully explore cultural and linguistic differences, and other questions for linguistic and psycholinguistic theory because of variability, perhaps by using a different methodology or a different group of informants to confirm the findings of this study. That is, "several questions have not been solved but rather brought to a head. From this point of view, the linguistic concern with politeness is a task for the future, not a thing of the past." (Held, 1992, p. 151)

LECTURE 11

Politeness Strategies in English Grammar

As most children learn at a young age (and as this unusual sign in South Africa demonstrates), please is one of the most significant politeness markers used in imperatives. (Steve Stringer Photography/Getty Images)

In sociolinguistics and conversation analysis (CA), politeness strategies are speech acts that express concern for others and minimize threats to self-esteem ("face") in particular social contexts.

Positive Politeness Strategies

Positive politeness strategies are intended to avoid giving offense by highlighting friendliness. These strategies include juxtaposing criticism with compliments, establishing common ground, and using jokes, nicknames, honorifics, tag questions, special discourse markers (please), and in-group jargon and slang.

For instance, a popular (if sometimes controversial) feedback strategy is the feedback sandwich: a positive comment before and after a criticism. The reason this strategy is often criticized in management circles is because it is, in fact, more of a politeness strategy than a useful feedback strategy

Negative Politeness Strategies

Negative political strategies are intended to avoid giving offense by showing deference. These strategies include questioning, hedging, and presenting disagreements as opinions.

A high-stakes historical example of negative politeness strategies occurred in 1546, when Catherine Parr, the sixth and final wife of Henry VIII, was nearly arrested for her outspoken religious views. She managed to deflect the king's anger through deference and presenting her disagreements as mere opinions that she had offered up so that he could be distracted from his painful health problems.

The Face Saving Theory of Politeness

The best known and most widely used approach to the study of politeness is the framework introduced by Penelope Brown and Stephen C. Levinson in Questions and Politeness (1978); reissued with corrections as Politeness: Some Universals in Language Usage (Cambridge Univ. Press, 1987). Brown and Levinson's theory of linguistic politeness is sometimes referred to as the "'face-saving' theory of politeness."

The theory has several segments and corollaries, but it all revolves around the concept of "face," or social value, both to one's self and to others. Social interactions require all participants to cooperate in order to maintain everyone's face - that is, to maintain everyone's simultaneous wants of being liked and being autonomous (and

being seen as such). Thus, politeness strategies develop to negotiate these interactions and achieve the most favorable outcomes.

Examples and Observations

"'Shut up!' is rude, even ruder than 'Keep quiet!' In the polite version, 'Do you think you would mind keeping quiet: this is, after all, a library, and other people are trying to concentrate,' everything in italics is extra. It is there to soften the demand, giving an impersonal reason for the request, and avoiding the brutally direct by the taking of trouble. Conventional grammar takes little account of such strategies, even though we are all masters of both making and understanding the signs that point to what is going on beneath the surface."

(Margaret Visser, The Way We Are. HarperCollins, 1994)

"Professor, I was wondering if you could tell us about the Chamber of Secrets."

(Hermione in Harry Potter and the Chamber of Secrets, 2002)

"Would you mind stepping aside? I got a purchase to make."

(Eric Cartman in "Cartmanland." South Park, 2001)

"'Sir,' the gentleman asked with a twang in his voice that was unmistakably Southern, 'would it bother you terribly if I joined you?'"

(Harold Coyle, Look Away. Simon & Schuster, 1995)

"'Laurence,' said Caroline, 'I don't think I'm going to be much help to you at Ladylees. I've had enough holiday-making. I'll stay for a couple of days but I want to get back to London and do some work, actually. Sorry to change my mind but--'

"'Go to hell,' Laurence said. 'Kindly go to hell.'"

(Muriel Spark, The Comforters. Macmillan, 1957)

Definition of Politeness

"What exactly is politeness? In one sense, all politeness can be viewed as deviation from maximally efficient communication; as violations (in some sense) of Grice's (1975) conversational maxims [see cooperative principle]. To perform an act other than in the most clear and efficient manner possible is to implicate some degree of politeness on the part of the speaker. To request another to open a window by saying "It's warm in here" is to perform the request politely because one did not use the most efficient means possible for performing this act (i.e., "Open the window"). . . .

"Politeness allows people to perform many inter-personally sensitive actions in a nonthreatening or less threatening manner.

"There are an infinite number of ways in which people can be polite by performing an act in a less than optimal manner, and Brown and Levinson's typology of five superstrategies is an attempt to capture some of these essential differences."

(Thomas Holtgraves, Language as Social Action: Social Psychology and Language Use. Lawrence Erlbaum, 2002)

Orienting to Different Kinds of Politeness

"People who grow up in communities that are more oriented to negative face wants and negative politeness may find that they are perceived as aloof or cold if they move somewhere where positive politeness is emphasized more. They may also mistake some of the conventionalised positive politeness routines as being expressions of 'genuine' friendship or closeness . . .. Conversely, people accustomed to paying attention to positive face wants and using positive politeness strategies may find that they come across as unsophisticated or vulgar if they find themselves in a community that is more oriented to negative face wants."
(Miriam Meyerhoff, Introducing Sociolinguistics.
Routledge, 2006)
Variables in Degrees of Politeness
"Brown and Levinson list three 'sociological variables' that speakers employ in choosing the degree of politeness to use and in calculating the amount of threat to their own face:

(i) the social distance of the speaker and hearer (D);
(ii) the relative 'power' of the speaker over the hearer (P);
(iii) the absolute ranking of impositions in the particular culture (R).
The greater the social distance between the interlocutors (e.g., if they know each other very little), the more politeness is generally expected. The greater the (perceived) relative power of hearer over speaker, the more politeness is recommended. The heavier the imposition made on the hearer (the more of their time required, or the greater the favour requested), the more politeness will generally have to be used."
(Alan Partington, The Linguistics of Laughter: A Corpus-Assisted Study of Laughter-Talk. Routledge, 2006)
Positive and Negative Politeness
"Brown and Levinson (1978/1987) distinguish between positive and negative politeness. Both types of politeness involve maintaining--or redressing threats to--positive and negative face, where positive face is defined as the addressee's 'perennial desire that his wants . . . should be thought of as desirable' (p. 101), and negative face as the addressee's 'want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded' (p. 129)."
(Almut Koester, Investigating Workplace Discourse. Routledge, 2006)

Specialized language pragmatics

Introduction

Pragmatics is the study of the ability of speakers to communicate more than that which is explicitly stated. A possible exception to this is relevance pragmatics, where it is postulated that some dimensions of explicitness (explicature-derivation) can be a matter of Pragmatics. Generally speaking, however, Pragmatics deals with meaning arising from language in context, in other words, the meaning intended by the speaker or text sender and understood by the listener or text receiver. When the communication act is successful, these meanings co- incide, and when it is not, they diverge to a greater or lesser degree. As such, Pragmatics focuses on the effect of context on communicative behavior as well as on how inferences are made by the receiver in order to arrive at the final interpretation of an utterance. The scope of pragmatic meaning can be entire utterances as well as individual lexical units. As Mey (2004: 42) points out, "pragmatics is essentially about the users of language in a real-life situation, and about the conditions that enable those users to employ linguistic techniques and materials effectively and appropriately".

Alternatively, Verschueren (1999: 7) has described Pragmatics, not as a language component, but rather as "a general cognitive, social, and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behavior. According to this view, "pragmatics does not constitute an additional component of a theory of language, but it offers a different perspective" (Verschueren 1999: 2). Verschueren thus denies that Pragmatics can be regarded as a compo- nent of language with its own set of features.

However, we are more in agreement with Mey (2001: 9), who claims that a perspectivist view emphasizes the pragmatic aspects of all parts of Linguistics, and can serve as an umbrella for the various components and areas of Linguistics. It is thus possible for the perspectivist view to coexist with the component view, and to expand rather than narrow the horizon on Pragmatics.

There is no specialized language Pragmatics per se. Research on Pragmatics in specialized language and Terminology tends to exist in the form of individual studies on different aspects of specialized communication. Pragmatic studies of specialized language generally focus on: (i) interactions between user groups in some specialized context (Lehtinen 2007; Vickers 2009); (ii) parameterization of specialized contexts for computer modeling or database design (Gero and Smith 2007; Kerremans et al. 2005; Kerremans, Temmerman, and Zhao 2005);

(iii) specialized text analysis (Myers 1992; Darian 1997); (iv) terminological variation (Bowker and Hawkins 2006; Freixa 2006; Tercedor Sánchez 2011); (v) controlled language (Jiménez Hurtado and Seibel 2005; Buendía Castro and Huertas Barros 2007).

Specialized language Pragmatics is directly related to the situations in which this type of communication occurs, and to the ways that the text sender and receiver potentially and effectively deal with them. Such communicative situations are the focus of the external or sociocultural view of Pragmatics (see 3.2.2.1), whereas the online construction of text and word meaning by sender and receiver refers to the internal or cognition-oriented view of Pragmatics (see 3.2.2.2).

Research in Sociocultural Pragmatics may compare and contrast the communicative customs of different communities (Trosberg 1994; Mey 2004); focus on preferences in discourse organization (Gallardo 2005; Engberg 2010); or analyze conversational styles (Chatwin 2008). As such, it characterizes the norms in language communities. In fact, it can even measure speaker proficiency. In a study comparing the use of multi-word units by expert and novice writers and speakers, Cortes (2004) makes the point that the use of multi-word units, in the form of collocations and fixed expressions associated with particular registers and genres, are a marker of competent language use in that particular register or genre (Greaves and Warren 2010: 221).This is usually done by analyzing the behavior of a population sample in a series of situations with identifiable explanatory social variables, and drawing generalizations from the distribution of frequencies obtained (Escandell Vidal 2004: 2).

In contrast, cognition-oriented Pragmatics explores how the text, which is the result of the communication act, is molded by the situation itself as well as the previous knowledge, intentions, expectations, and beliefs of the text sender. It should be pointed out here that despite its name, cognition-oriented Pragmatics is not directly related to Cognitive Linguistics, which makes no principled distinction between Semantics and Pragmatics (Fauconnier 1997). According to this view, meaning, as derived from language use, is a function of the activation of conceptual knowledge structures as guided by context (Evans 2009b). Cognition-oriented Pragmatics also targets how the text is finally understood by the receivers, both at the micro and macrocontextual level. Needless to say, this type of research is more difficult to carry out scientifically because of its immense complexity. According to Nuyts (2004), "a scientific analysis of this phenomenon [intercultural communication] means, then, firstly, to determine and characterize these differences between cognitive systems, and secondly, to determine and characterize what interlocutors actually do to overcome them in

their attempts to communicate, and why these attempts may (to some extent) succeed or fail". Examples of pragmatic studies that apply these principles to language are Gibbs (2006), Chang (2007), and Carston (2002).

Pragmatics

Whatever the perspective used, Pragmatics generally studies communication events or the intentional acts of speakers at times and places. According to Korta and Perry (2006), Pragmatics deals with the following types of facts:

- Facts about the objective facts of the utterance, including who the speaker is, when the utterance occurred, and where it took place;
- Facts about the speaker's intentions;
- Facts about the beliefs of the speaker and of the text receivers, and the conversation that they are engaged in;
- Facts about social institutions, such as marriage ceremonies, courtroom procedures, etc, which affect what a person accomplishes in or by saying what he does.

In specialized communication, crucial pragmatic dimensions include the beliefs and expectations of the text sender, the knowledge shared by the text sender and text receivers, the communicative objectives of the oral or written text stemming from the interaction of the participants, and the factors that cause receivers to interpret the text in a certain way. Specialized language pragmatics also focuses on facts about social and academic institutions, in which events generate specific types of specialized texts.

An example of such an academic institutional event is a conference in which research results are presented within a given knowledge field, such as Neurosurgery, Coastal Engineering, Nanotechnology, etc. Among the communicative interactions typical of an academic conference, one can find oral presentations, posters, round tables, plenary lectures, etc. However, even when these discourse types all contain and convey basically the same or similar information, an oral presentation is hardly the same thing as a poster, which is different from a roundtable or a plenary lecture.

All of these academic discourse types in turn differ substantially from an article in a scientific journal, describing the same research results presented at the conference. The reason for this is that formal communication is constrained, and determined, at least to a certain extent, by specific events, which require and generate a certain text type even when the communication acts take place in the same setting with essentially the same set of participants.

The type of text or discourse models the information conveyed as well as the language used for the presentation of the information.

Evans and Green (2006: 221) underline the importance of different types of context in the modulation of any given instance of a lexical item as it occurs in a particular usage event. Broad context types mentioned are the following:

– Encyclopedic information accessed (within a network of specialized knowledge)
– Sentential context (utterance meaning)
– Prosodic context (intonation pattern)
– Situational context (physical location where the text is emitted)
– Interpersonal context (relationship holding between text sender and receiver)

Within specialized language Pragmatics, prosodic context is perhaps less important than the other four context types. In this sense, the specialized text is a communicative act that takes place within a given setting, which can be defined in terms of a set of context-related pragmatic parameters linked to a set of inferential processes. Such texts thus can be said to have depth/vertical extension as well as width/horizontal extension.

Another focus of specialized language Pragmatics is the nature of specific specialized domains. Certain knowledge areas evidently influence communication between groups of participants, and generate the use of one text template in preference to another. In fact, it has been proposed that expert discourses be classified in terms of functions, such as reading and writing monographs and scholarly articles, observations and analyses, giving lessons and lectures, holding press conferences, or giving interviews. According to Van Dijk (2001):

These categories involve for instance the overall domain of the current communicative event (e.g., research, education or health care), the overall action(s) being accomplished (e.g., investigate, teach, etc.), the current setting (time, loca- tion, circumstances), the specific actions involved (hold a seminar, give a lecture, have a research meeting), the participants and their various communicative, so- cial and professional roles, and their aims, interests, and especially knowledge and opinions.

Van Dijk's proposal includes some of the items mentioned by Evans and Green (2006: 221). The overall domain of the communicative event overlaps to some extent with encyclopedic knowledge; setting corresponds to situational context; and participants and roles correspond to interpersonal context. However,

the field-specific actions and activities being performed evidently need to be considered as well as crucial contextual factors.

A Medical Forensics report, for instance, has characteristics that are unquestionably linked to the knowledge field in question. This type of report, which is a hybrid text between Medicine and Law, includes specific medical terminology. Nevertheless, it also has the status of a legal document, whose objective is to officially inform on or certify a given state of affairs, usually connected with a medical condition, injury, death, etc. Accordingly, a medical forensics autopsy report can be structured as follows: (i) final diagnosis; (ii) external examination (iii) internal examination (with subsections referring to parts of the body, such as the mediastinum, body cavities, lungs, heart, etc.) (iv) microscopic description; (v) evidence. The subject, whose body has been examined, is always referred to as aseptically as possible even in high-profile murders with great emotional potential.

For example, in 1996 an autopsy report was made of JonBenét Ramsey, a six-year-old beauty queen, who had been sexually abused and strangled in Boulder, Colorado in 1996. Her murderer was never officially accused (though her father was the principal suspect). In this very high-profile and emotional murder case, the coroner referred to the dead child in terms of her body parts or in the most impersonal terms possible. When he was obliged to refer to her as a whole, and not as a description of parts, it is in the following way: six-year old female, the decedent, and the Caucasian female body. An example of this can be observed in the following excerpt from the autopsy report:

REMAINDER OF EXTERNAL EXAMINATION: The unembalmed, well developed and well nourished Caucasian female body measures 47 inches in length and weighs an estimated 45 pounds. The scalp is covered by long blonde hair which is fixed in two ponytails, one on top of the head secured by a cloth hair tie and blue elastic band, and one in the lower back of the head secured by a blue elastic band. No scalp trauma is identified. The external auditory canals are patent and free of blood. The eyes are green and the pupils equally dilated […] (J.B. Meyer 1996).

The external examination goes from the whole to the parts, beginning from the scalp and progressing downwards. The present tense conveys the impression of immediacy, and the consistent use of the passive voice suggests objectivity and lack of emotional involvement. As is well-known, the passive voice foregrounds the action and backgrounds the agent of the action, who often is not mentioned at all. Similarly, reporters, lawyers, and government agencies often

use the passive voice to dilute responsibility. In this text, the implicit message is that the pathologist cannot have an opinion, but must let the observed evidence speak for itself.

This type of report differs from a forensic psychiatric evaluation report, which instead of a physical examination is based on a structured interview with the patient in order to ascertain and certify his/her mental state. Within this context, the category of action is extremely important because the document itself is the report of the professional activity or activities carried out to achieve this goal as well as the conclusions reached as the result of these activities.

The same thing is true for research articles, which describe the actions carried out as part of a study or experiment. For example, the activity of presenting research results is reflected in the structure of the prototypical scientific article in specialized domains such as Organic Chemistry, Artificial Intelligence, Electrical Engineering, etc. which generally follow the IMRAD (Introduction, Materials and Methods, Results, and Discussion) template. IMRAD is the standard format for research reports in Western culture, and thus, is a clear signal to the text receiver of text type, purpose, and content. It is also an example of iconic sequencing. Within each section of the text, there is a series of propositions, which, depending on the knowledge field, have one type of semantic argument or another. However, regardless of the specialized field, the basic research actions and processes are very similar.

For example, in the Materials and Methods section, typical cognitive processes are analyze, study, assess, calculate, etc. though exactly what is analyzed, studied, or calculated is specific to the scientific or technical field in question. In the Results and Discussion section, characteristic processes are describe, justify, affirm, produce, etc. This is not surprising since here is where the results are presented and their possible repercussions explored.

All of these issues must be addressed by a pragmatic theory that specifically targets specialized language, whose first task would be to try and bring together the two most common approaches to Pragmatics, namely, Sociocultural (external) Pragmatics and Cognition-oriented (internal) Pragmatics.

Sociocultural Pragmatics

Broadly speaking, Sociocultural Pragmatics targets how social information enters into and affects communicative behavior. According to Escandell Vidal (2004: 3), its main task is to identify and characterize the norms that underlie

the use of language by a given social group. In specialized language, this social group comprises specialized language users within a given field or knowledge area. This type of Pragmatics is initially based on the work of Austin (1962) and Searle (1969, 1975), who laid the foundations for exploring contextual constraints on communication and social conditions for appropriateness. Sociocultural Pragmatics generally focuses on politeness studies, research on conversa- tional styles, rhetoric, discourse genres, and register.

In specialized communication, genre and register are important concepts even though their definitions often seem to confusingly run together. In reality, they represent different perspectives or points of view. According to Lee (2001b: 46–47), register is used when a text is viewed as the instantiation of a conventionalized, functional configuration of language tied to certain broad societal situations. Relevant examples are the conversational language used to chat on the Internet or the formal language patterns that characterize research articles. Genre is used when a text is viewed as a culturally recognized artifact, a grouping of texts according to some culturally and conventionally recognized criteria. It is thus possible to talk about the existence of a formal academic register (focus: language), and its instantiation in the genres of research articles, posters, lectures, and conference papers. Following Lee (2001b), we use register to refer to lexical-grammatical and semantic discourse patterns associated with situations, whereas genre is used to refer to the membership of a text in culturally-recognizable categories, which may invoke more than one register. As such, genre is a socio-pragmatic phenomenon.

According to Unger (2002: 2), a socio-pragmatic phenomenon is a set of shared assumptions that governs the communicative behavior of members of this group. It also relates communicative behavior to the structure of cultural in- stitutions. Although a definitive inventory and classification of specialized lan- guage genres and registers does not as yet exist, such genres would doubtlessly be linked to specialized knowledge activities and text function within the con- text of a specialized knowledge field.

Göpferich (1995) and Gläser (1995) have established five main functions for specialized texts: informative (e.g. technical reports and catalogues); juridical-normative (e.g. EU framework directives, international standards); didactic-instructive (e.g. instruction manuals and textbooks), popularizing (e.g. popular science articles); and compilatory (e.g. dictionaries, glossaries). Text genres are domain-specific and reflect the activities in the specialized field. Registers would presumably be subdivided primarily according to levels of formality. These formality levels would be constrained by parameters inherent in the con- text of specialized communication. Register relates variations of specialized

language use to variations of social context in which this type of interaction generally occurs.

Cognition-oriented Pragmatics

The objective of Cognition-oriented (internal) Pragmatics is to account for the cognitive bases of linguistic performance, which encompass the inferential processes leading to the final interpretation or the interface relationship between grammar and pragmatics. The groundwork for this type of approach was first laid by Grice (1975), Sperber and Wilson (1986), and Levinson (2000), who endeavored to establish general principles that govern different aspects of the use and understanding of language (Escandell Vidal 2004: 348). Cognition-oriented Pragmatics also studies cultural breakdowns and pragmatic failure (Moeschler 2004).

Cognition-oriented theories of Pragmatics seek to specify and describe the biological or cognitive foundations underlying communicative behavior, which means the formulation of principles with predictive power. Generally speaking, cognitive pragmatics is largely based on the relevance-theoretic approach of Sperber and Wilson (1986), which envisions pragmatics as a kind of information-processing system for interpreting human communicative behavior.

Tendahl and Gibbs (2008) focus on metaphor to compare Cognitive Linguistics and Relevance Theory, and come to the conclusion that they provide complementary perspectives on metaphor and language communication.

Cognitive linguistics, with its interest in metaphorical thought, studies entrenched metaphorical mappings, and has done extensive work illustrating the range of meaning correspondences that arise in the source to target domain mappings within conceptual metaphors, for instance. Relevance theory, on the other hand, explores the meanings that arise in specific contexts, and aims to demonstrate how these cognitive effects are constrained by the principle of optimal relevance. [...] there is surely a mixture of conceptually entrenched metaphorical knowledge with immediate contextual information, all of which is once more constrained by a principle of optimal relevance, which determines the particular meanings that listeners and readers typically infer during online metaphor or interpretation (Tendahl and Gibbs 2008: 1839).

Despite the fact that Relevance Theory focuses more on the role of metaphor for communication, and thus the pragmatics of metaphor and Cognitive Linguistics focuses more on the role of metaphor in our conceptual system,

these authors believe that both perspectives could be usefully combined within a broader cog-nitive theory of metaphor use.

However, there are other approaches that could be applied, which are specifically related to knowledge representation. For example, Cognitive Psychology has proposed four theories of the human conceptual system: semantic memory, exemplar models, feed-forward connectionist nets, and situated simulation theory. Barsalou (2003) compares these models on the basis of the follow- ing dimensions: (i) architecture (modular vs. non-modular); (ii) representation (amodal vs. modal); (iii) abstraction (decontextualized vs. situated); (iv) stabil- ity (stable vs. dynamical); (v) organization (taxonomic vs. action-environment interface). He offers empirical evidence which makes a strong case for the ex- istence of situated simulations as a powerful interface between cognition and perception.

In this regard, situated simulation has also become a research focus in Cognitive Linguistics. Indeed, as pointed out by Tendahl and Gibbs (2008: 7), embodied simulation is the key feature of the neural theory of metaphor since embodied experience plays a primary role in the image-schematic structure of metaphorical concepts. Lakoff and Johnson (2003: 255) mention recent work that uses computational techniques from neural modeling to show that metaphorical mappings are physical neural maps that bind sensorimotor information to more abstract ideas as part of the neural ensembles existing in different re- gions of the brain. As a result, many aspects of metaphorical thought are now understood as "metaphorical enactments" that occur in real-time as dynamic brain functions.

Bergen and Chang (2005) have also incorporated this notion into their Embodied Construction Grammar, a formalism for linguistic analysis, based on a simulation-based model of language understanding. In this model, linguistic constructions map phonological forms onto conceptual representations, which in turn, are constrained by the body's perceptual and motor systems. Understanding an utterance involves at least two distinct processes: analysis and simulation. The analysis of an utterance draws on linguistic knowledge, world knowledge, and the current communicative context to produce a semantic specification. The semantic specification provides parameters for a dynamic simulation using active embodied structures. The meaning of the utterance consists of the simulation and the inferences that it produces. In this simulation-based approach to language understanding, constructions need only specify simulation parameters, allowing features of the current context and of richer embodied and world knowledge to influence the result of any particular simulation

Barsalou (2003) argues that such simulations underlie a situated, dynamic conceptual system, which would be neither fully modular nor fully amodal. This kind of situated conceptualization is conceived as a package of situation-specific inferences, which would include four types of information: (1) contextually-relevant properties of the focal category; (2) information about the background setting; (3) likely actions that the agent could take to achieve an associated goal; (4) likely introspective states that the agent might have while interacting with the category. All of these are valid candidates for cognitive parameters in a pragmatics of specialized language communication.

Evidently, the parameters related to contextual properties as well as speaker goals would also be relevant to Sociocultural Pragmatics. Sociocultural Pragmatics, however, would evidently study them as manifestations of language behavior in a population sample, corpus of texts, or recordings of social interactions. Cognition-oriented Pragmatics would analyze them empirically by the assessment of people's language behavior, intuitions, recruitment of metaphor, etc. through questionnaires, problem-solving situations, and psycholinguistic tests.

Pragmatics and Cognitive Linguistics

One of the problems with Pragmatics has always been its inherent vagueness. It has often been used as a convenient catch-all for all the messy bits of meaning that Semantics cannot account for and has often ignored. Cognitive Linguistics has a very definite position regarding Pragmatics. Cognitive semanticists argue that semantic knowledge cannot be separated from pragmatic knowledge, and that these kinds of knowledge constitute a continuum (Evans and Green 2006: 213).

Nonetheless, despite the fact that Cognitive Linguistics does not officially recognize the existence of a Cognitive Pragmatics, there are candidates to fill this gap. For example, Bara (2010) sets out a theory of Cognitive Pragmatics (in line with the cognitive-oriented pragmatic approaches described in 3.2.2.2). According to Bara (2010:1–3), Cognitive Pragmatics is the study of the mental states of people engaged in communication as well as of how such mental states are expressed. He maintains that the process of communicating linguistically or extralinguistically involves two different ways of processing data, and that the same input may be analyzed in parallel from these two perspectives. His theory claims that communication is not only based on the presence of two people, but also on a shared mental representation that must be constructed of the communicative event taking place. The participants must also make explicit their intention to take part in the interaction.

In contrast to cognitive-oriented Pragmatics approaches, Cognitive Linguistics takes an encyclopedic approach to Semantics in which knowledge of word meaning and knowledge of word use are both regarded as types of semantic knowledge. Haiman (1980) and Langacker (1987) were both pioneers in arguing in favor of the encyclopedic approach to meaning. This is in line with the fact that Cognitive Linguistics is usage-based. Langacker (1991a) was the first to make this point though it must also be said that the founders of Cognitive

Linguistics (i.e. Langacker, Lakoff, and Talmy) have never been systematic in grounding their proposals on corpus-based analysis. Usage-based theories posit that language builds up a conventional inventory of units that a speaker can use for communication. These units come from hearing and using the language, and through use, become entrenched (Barlow and Kemmer 2000). Language acquisition thus consists of entrenching, building, and extending concepts through use.

In Cognitive Linguistics, lexical items and linguistic expressions are regarded as underspecified, and are considered to be pointers to networks of encyclopedic knowledge. Once the network is accessed, a meaning construction process takes place that is intimately linked to the way that language is used. In this sense, Evans and Green (2006: 216) underline the fact that meaning construction cannot be divorced from language use. This signifies that meaning is fundamentally pragmatic because language in use is situated and thus contextualized.

This is particularly important in specialized language communication in which the meaning of a text is largely encoded in specialized knowledge units or terms belonging to the specialized field. An in-depth analysis of the pragmatic potential of specialized knowledge units, their activation in different types of specialized texts, and their comprehension by users would presumably provide us with a description of the specialized communication process. The online interpretation of these units depends on the discourse context, which involves frame specification, situational context, and construal.

Pragmatics and Terminology

Lexical Pragmatics in general language has not received a great deal of attention from researchers though interesting studies have been carried out by

Bondzio (1983), Ludwig (1991), and Jiménez Hurtado (2001), related to the codifica- tion of pragmatic information in dictionary entries. This information generally pertains to the geographic (e.g. USA, British), diachronic (e.g. old-fashioned, obsolete), or social usage (e.g. formal, colloquial) of single words. It involves stating valid usage conditions or the contextual restrictions of a word. This type of information can also include the usefulness of a certain word for achieving a goal in some type of interactional context.

Depending on the dictionary, its purpose, and targeted user group, pragmatic formation may be formulated in the dictionary entry in different ways. Recently, Collins Cobuild (Version 5), in an effort to enrich pragmatic markers in their dictionary, extended this type of information even further, and established category labels such as approval, disapproval, emphasis, feelings, formulae, politeness, and vagueness to indicate the speaker's goal when using a word. For example, a word is labeled with approval when it is used to show that the speaker approves of the person or thing that he/she is talking about. A word is labeled with feelings when the speaker uses it to express his/her feelings about something or towards someone. The dictionary entries in Figure 51 show that angelic is used to indicate approval, whereas angel indicates both feelings and approval. This information is given in the Extra Column.

Figure 51. Dictionary entries in *Collins Cobuild* (Version 5)

As for Terminology, the codification of pragmatic information in specialized language units has not been explored until very recently in an effort to account for terminological variation and its causes (e.g. Bourigault and Slodzian 1999; Faulstich 1998; Freixa 2006; Seibel 2004a, 2004b, Tercedor Sánchez 2011). However, such information is rarely included in term entries in terminological resources.

Much of the work in Cognitive Linguistics has implicitly focused on lexical pragmatics. As previously mentioned, Cognitive Linguistics does not distin-

guish between Semantics and Pragmatics, and regards word meaning as essentially pragmatic. Lexical Pragmatics is largely based on the premise that the meaning of words in use is underdetermined by the semantics of the lexical items involved, and has to be inferred in context (Unger 2005; Blutner 1998). Thus, the meaning communicated by the use of a word is context-dependent to a greater or lesser degree. Since words have underspecified meaning representations, they reach their full-fledged meanings in contexts through considerable pragmatic inference.

This is especially true of generic concepts such as sensible, which has different meanings, depending on who or what is sensible, and who is the speakeris. For example, in a sensible woman, sensible describes a woman perceived as having common sense or reason. A sensible skirt is a little more complicated because it does not refer so much to a skirt as to the person wearing the skirt. This unattractive garment, because of its fabric, durability, or length causes its wearer to be perceived as practical. Thus, in the same way, as sensible shoes, the characteristics of the piece of clothing reflect the mental characteristics of the person wearing it. However, in sensible environmental laws, the perception of what is sensible depends on the speaker's belief system. Sensible environ- mental laws would have a radically different meaning, depending on whether the speaker was the president of British Petroleum or a member of Greenpeace. Thus, communicative context is often an extremely important factor in meaning representation.

Although the tendency in General Terminology Theory was initially to ignore context and contextual variables as well as the terminological variation that they produce, it soon became apparent that specialized terms are lexical items that are used in communicative contexts, and that these contexts can affect their potential meaning. The importance of the communicative nature of terminology has been underlined by Sager (1990, 1993), Gambier (1993), Wußler (1997) and Cabré (1999a, 1999b, 2000a). In fact, one of the major objectives of the Com- municative Theory of Terminology (Cabré 1999a, 1999b, 2000a, 2000b, 2001a, 2001b) is to account for the way in which specialized knowledge units fulfill a specific function in an act of communication within a specific knowledge, situational, and cultural context.

It has often been asked why there is so much terminological variation, when the desired objective of specialized communication is precisely the opposite (Bowker and Hawkins 2006). In fact, despite assertions to the contrary, specialized texts abound with examples of terminological variation. Sager (1993) criticizes the fact that so little research has been carried out on this phenomenon in specialized language. The reason perhaps lies in the fact that

specialists in the field, who can distinguish between the variants of a term, are usually not in-terested in this type of work, or are linguistically unprepared for it. On the other hand, linguists, who wish to take on such a task, often lack sufficient knowl- edge of the specialized field, and thus are unable to determine regularities that underlie processes of variation in specialized communication.

Although specialized language initially aspired to the ideal of having one linguistic designation for each concept with a view to imbuing specialized communication with greater precision, reality has turned out to be quite different. The same concept has often given rise to many different types of linguistic designations. A case in point is the concept of HIGH-DOSE CHEMOTHERAPY in the
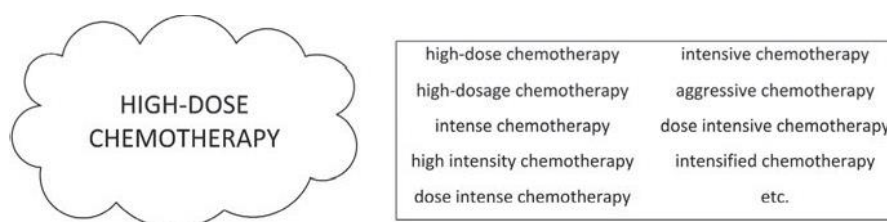

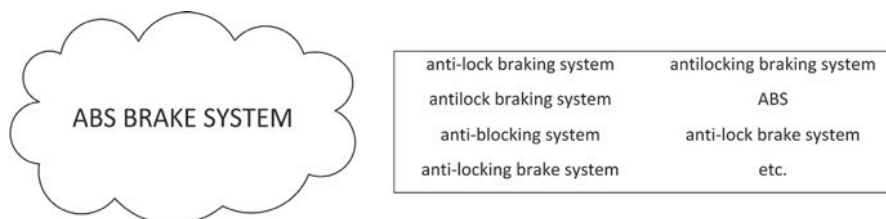*Figure 52.* Designations for HIGH-DOSE CHEMOTHERAPY

Figure 53. Designations for ABS BRAKE SYSTEM

domain of Medicine (Figure 52) or ABS BRAKE SYSTEM in the domain of car mechanics (Figure 53).

The many designations for chemotherapy administered in large quantities and for ABS brake system are two examples of the proliferation of terms refer-ring to the same concept. Although in the same way as in general language, it is possible to establish reasons for terminological variation stemming from user-based parameters of geographic, temporal, or social variation, or from usage-based parameters of tenor, field, and mode (Gregory and Carroll 1978), these only offer a partial representation of very complex situation.

Faulstich (1998) underlines the need to analyze terms both synchronically and diachronically with a view to systematizing terminological structures that

*change over time. This would provide a reconstruction of the conceptual struc-
tures of the period of time analyzed. However, terminological variation occurs
for reasons that are often considerably more complex and difficult to explain.
Freixa (2006: 52) classifies causes for terminological variation in the following
categories:*

– Dialectal Caused by different origins of the authors
– Functional Caused by different communicative registers
– Discursive Caused by different stylistic and expressive needs of
<div align="center">

the authors
</div>

– Interlinguistic ⇒ Caused by contact between languages
– Cognitive ⇒ Caused by different conceptualizations and motivations

*Along with dialectal variation resulting from geographic, temporal, and social
contexts, she also mentions functional, discursive, interlinguistic, and cognitive
variation. Functional variation basically refers to registers described in terms
of field, tenor, and mode. Discursive causes for variation are linked to style and
include the use of terminological variation in order to avoid repetition, whereas
interlinguistic variation may occur when a language is in close cultural con-
tact to another. This type of contact foments the coexistence of a term and a
loanword, which in Spanish is the case of voleibol (English loanword) and
balonvolea (Spanish term), both of which at one time competed in Spanish as
terms for the sport of volleyball. However, voleibol is now the most frequent
term used. Finally, cognitive reasons may generate terms that represent differ-
ent perspectives or even different ideologies, According to Freixa (2006: 65),
this is reflected in the creation of euphemisms for negative concepts (e.g. staff
downsizing, redeployment of labor, staff slimming, etc. instead of layoff).*

 *Nevertheless, there are certain types of variation that do not appear to fall
into any of these categories such as morphological variants, orthographic vari-
ants, ellipted variants, abbreviations, graphical variation, variation by permu-
tation, etc. (Bowker and Hawkins 2006: 81). Their use in texts often seems to be
random and not to respond to any pattern or regularity. Without a doubt, a
more in-depth study of the pragmatic dimensions of terms is necessary to detect
possible reasons behind terminological variation.*

 Pragmatic dimensions of terms

*The pragmatic dimensions of terms or specialized language units are those
specifically pertaining to the use of utterances in oral or written texts. These
dimensions include frame, situational context, and construal, which should not*

be regarded as water-tight compartments. Terms belonging to different levels of specialization and knowledge fields access different conceptual configurations or frames, and appear in a given text type, which takes place in a certain setting or situational context to satisfy different user needs. The text sender configures his/her discourse with a purpose in mind and construes the information for a tar- geted group of text receivers. If the text achieves its purpose, user expectations are fulfilled by the speech act dominating the text.

To a great extent, the success of the specialized communication act is conditioned by the terms selected and the receiver's ability to make the right inferences and correctly interpret this information. It inevitably depends on the ability of the sender to correctly judge the knowledge that he/she shares with the text receivers as well as and the receivers' identity and location in time and space. As a result of these predictions and expectations, the sender chooses the terms to be used, and configures them to transmit a message in consonance with his/her interactional goals.

Frame

Within this context, frame refers to the conceptual network that any given term gives access to (see Chapter 3.1). The information in this network is the source of the underspecified meaning, which expands and becomes more specific when the term is activated in a certain context. However, not all knowledge that is accessible through a term has equal standing. Certain aspects are more central than others.

According to Langacker (1987), there are four types of encyclopedic knowledge associated with a word: (a) conventional; (b) generic; (c) intrinsic; (d) characteristic.

– *Conventional knowledge* is the extent to which a particular facet of knowledge is shared within a linguistic community.
– *Generic knowledge* refers to the degree of generality associated with a particular word.
– *Intrinsic knowledge* refers to the aspect of word meaning that makes no reference to entities external to the referent.
– *Characteristic knowledge* refers to the aspects of the encyclopedic information that are characteristic of or unique to the class of entities that the word designates.

This classification can also be applied to specialized language. A case in point is the specialized concept of EROSION, which refers to the displacement of solids usually by agents such as wind, water, or ice by downward or down-slope move- ment. In this sense, it is a process that is induced by an agent, and which

affects a specific geographic or inanimate entity. Any process takes place over a pe- riod of time and can be divided into smaller segments. In this sense, erosion can happen at a specific season of the year, and may take place in a certain direction. According to Evans and Green (2006: 217), conventional knowledge is widely known and shared among members of a speech community. For exam-ple, conventional knowledge about erosion includes the fact that it moves soil and rock, and can leave its mark on the earth's surface, eventually carving out holes as big as the Grand Canyon. Non-conventional knowledge about erosion might include the fact that last summer one went to the beach in Malaga and found that half of the sand had been washed away because of a severe storm the
previous month.

Generic knowledge is often also conventional because it can be applied to many instances of a particular category. For example, generic knowledge is that every minute of every day, the Earth is being changed by erosion. This knowledge applies to all types of erosion (water, wind, glacier, sea, and soil), and thus can be regarded as generic.

Intrinsic knowledge refers to the internal properties of an entity. The most intrinsic property of erosion is the fact that it is a process, which may occur naturally or artificially. This means that it takes place over time, and can be divided into phases.

Characteristic knowledge is the degree to which knowledge is unique to a particular class of entity. For example, erosion is initiated by an agent (i.e. water, wind, glacier, or sea). However, glacier erosion is less characteristic than water or wind erosion since most people may live all their lives without ever catching a glimpse of a real glacier. In contrast, the effects of water and wind erosion can be easily perceived, and are obvious in everyday geographic contexts.

Encyclopedic knowledge is the result of the interaction of these four types of knowledge. However, according to Cognitive Linguistics, there is no pragmatic meaning as such because the selection of encyclopedic meaning is informed by contextual factors (Evans and Green 2006: 220), and is thus always a function of context.

The meaning of a word is constructed on-line as a result of contextual information, and is thus modulated by context. Evidently, in the following examples, *erosion* is understood in different ways.

Context:

(169) **Erosion** is an intrinsic natural process but in many places it is increased by human land use. Poor land use practices include deforestation, overgrazing, unmanaged construction activity and road or building. Land that is used for the production of agricultural crops generally experiences a significant greater rate of erosion than that of land under natural vegetation

Erosion is a natural or human-induced process affecting the Earth.

Contexts:

− (170) Cervical **erosion** occurs when the cervix is scraped, perhaps during intercourse or by an intrauterine device, or IUD.

− (171) Dental **erosion** is the chemical or mechanicochemical destruction of tooth substance, which leads to the creation of concavities of many shapes at the enamel junction of teeth.

Erosion is a medical condition affecting the human body.

> **Context:**
> (172) Market share **erosion** and declining street prices are evidence that channel conflict is becoming destructive. Channels are responding to excessive competition by deemphasizing the brand or by giving away too much in order to keep an account.

Erosion is a stock price reduction and indicative of financial crisis.

Examples (169–172) show the modulation of the meaning of erosion in various specialized contexts, which by means of metaphorical extension, situates the term in different specialized domains, such as environmental science, medicine, or finance. The context activates certain segments of the frame of EROSION, whereas other parts are not activated. For example, in the preceding examples in which erosion affects the cervix (170) teeth (171), or the stock market (172), the most basic meaning of erosion is extended to these contexts. In (170) and (171) the tooth or the cervix has been reduced or modified as a result of the particles displaced by an unspecified agent. In (172), typical of the financial sector, market share erosion also refers to a reduction process, but this time the focus is more on the cause, which are the negative events that affect the economy.

Context

Context is one of those words, for which there is no universally accepted definition. According to Akman and Surav (1997), "denotation of the word [*context*] has become murkier as its uses have been extended in many directions and deliver the now widespread opinion that context has become some sort of conceptual garbage can".

Here, context is regarded as a product of language use (see 4.1). Communication (and specialized communication as well) can thus be said to create contexts, and at the same time be context-dependent (Bateson 1972). In specialized language, context can be conceived as a *relational construct* in the sense of Fetzer and Akman (2002), which relates the specialized communication act to its surroundings and participants. It also helps to anchor linguistic designations to objective reality by providing background information. This situates the objects designated, and explicitly relates them to each other as well as to the agents that use them and act on them.

An optimal specialized language context is one with a high level of informativity (i.e. a knowledge-rich context), which provides relevant information about the specialized knowledge concept. It should also make explicit the prag-

matic situatedness of the communicative act (Bach 1994; Cappelen and Lepore 2005; Mey 2001).

According to Evans (2008), the notion of context must include, at the very least, all of the following:

– the other words that make up the utterance itself;
– the background knowledge shared by the speaker and hearer;
– the physical venue and temporal setting of the utterance;
– the communicative intention of the speaker as recognized and interpreted by the hearer in the service of facilitating the interactional goals.

Even though ambiguity is eschewed in scientific texts, and text senders gen- erally try to be as clear and informative as possible, the text (as a written or spoken message) cannot explicitly include all of the information that the text sender wishes to transmit. Evidently, there is a great deal of meaning implicit in the situational context of the specialized communication event itself. In this respect, the analysis and subsequent structuring of information as represented by specialized knowledge units are motivated by a wide range of factors, which are also part of the process. These include the knowledge level, intentions, and expectations of the text sender; textual content, form and function; assumed knowledge level of the text receivers and their ability to make inferences; norms of stylistic and textual acceptability in the specialized text system, etc..

Texts as contexts

The first component of context mentioned by Evans (2008) is that provided by "the other words that make up the utterance itself". This corresponds both to the encyclopedic information accessed by the term as well as the utterance context in which it appears. Evidently, terminological context is provided by the immediately surrounding text, as well as the text as a whole. To a certain extent, a context reflects the text sender's intentions as well as his/her predictions of shared knowledge. Terminological contexts provide a better understanding of specialized knowledge units, and can be even more informative than meaning definitions. For example, the definition of the drug, ranitidine, is the following:

(173) **Ranitidine:** a histamine blocker $C_{13}H_{22}N_4O_3S$ that is administered in the form of its hydrochloride to inhibit gastric acid secretion (*Merriam- Webster Online Dictionary*).

Since the definition limits itself to the most basic information, the receiver only acquires a limited knowledge of the properties of the drug, such as its chemical

composition and effect. However, the following excerpt (174) from a research article situates ranitidine in a more explicative context:

(174) Ranitidine hydraochloride (Zantac®) is a histamine 2-receptor antago- nist (H2RA) medication used in peptic ulcer disease therapy, acute stress ulcers, gastroesophageal reflux and related disorders. This medication is often used intravenously in the operating room and during recovery in surgical departments or intensive care units, and orally in medical de- partments (Oliva et al. 2008).

The reader is provided with information not only about the type of medication, but also about the diseases that ranitidine treats as well as its form and place of administration. This is why contextual information is important in any type of terminological database as a means of supplementing and enhancing defini- tions, and adjusting them to the user group targeted by the specialized language resource.

Context as a way to achieving interactional goals
Although the standard text function for scientific and technical texts is the infor- mative function, this is certainly not the only one. In a specialized text, priorities are often centered on not only transmitting, but often on justifying or arguing for the validity of the technical and scientific information within the text. The language used should implicitly assert and guarantee the reliability of the infor- mation in the text. In other words, the text format and content should establish a context of complicity, which is geared to gaining the receivers' confidence and trust.

One way of establishing such a context and conveying the impression of reli- ability and trustworthiness is the precise use of terminology at the right level of specificity so as to convey the message in a clear, direct way. This is an implicit statement that the author of the text is an expert on the subject and is transmitting relevant information. When done well, this strategy can be extremely success- ful because it implicitly transmits the message that the text sender knows what he/she is talking about, as is obviously the case in the following introduction to a research report:

(175) Many climate studies have examined trends in quantities such as tem- perature, precipitation, and carbon dioxide (CO_2) based on time series of data collected over the last 50 to 100 years (e.g., Cayan et al., 1998; Peterson and Vose, 1997; Keeling and Whorf, 1998). These studies fre- quently include time-

series plots showing, for example, increases since the middle of the twentieth century. In some cases, these figures include trend lines or smoothed curves to highlight the nature of a particular trend.

> *The statistical strength or weakness of any such trend is usually de- tailed in the paper. However, it is not uncommon for a graph of an es- pecially newsworthy trend to be reproduced in the media. […] While trends published in scientific articles have undergone review for scien- tific and statistical robustness, it is easy for the untrained eye to see ap- parent trends in other similar, relatively short time series that may not be real. The aim of this paper is to examine the apparent trend in a simulated annual climatic time series using random numbers (Comrie 2008).*

Example (175), irrespective of its conceptual content, is an example of the in- troduction of a well-written scientific research report. The author makes a basic assertion, which is backed up by previous studies. He succinctly presents a prob- lem of the existence of both real and apparent trends in climate data. At the end of the paragraph, he states the aim of his paper, which is to carry out a study in which random numbers will be used instead of actual data to see whether any trends appear.

The clear and coherent structure of his text, which goes from a general asser- tion to specific examples, and uses preferentially strong verbs instead of the pas- sive voice makes the information clear even to a non-scientist. This perception is reinforced by coherent series of terms activating the knowledge fields relevant to the study. For example, temperature, precipitation, and carbon dioxide from the field of Meteorology combine with time-series plots, trend lines, smoothed curves, and robustness from the field of Statistics to help the receiver situate the knowledge accessed by the terms and create a context for its convergence.

However, in poor scientific writing, such a strategy is often overdone. Long sentences combined with confusing jargon cause a breakdown in communica- tion and produce precisely the opposite effect. This is what occurs in the fol- lowing text on the electrical breakdown of nitrogen:

(176) The goal of the work was to confirm the nature of electrical breakdown of nitrogen in uniform fields at high pressures and electrode gaps which approach those obtained in engineering practice, prior to the determina- tion of the processes which set the criterion for breakdown in the above- mentioned gas in uniform and non-uniform fields of engineering signif- icance (Example taken from Alley 1996: 86).

Although in (176) the information is all there and there are no grammatical errors, by the time text receivers arrive at the second which, they are cogni- tively exhausted. Even expert engineering knowledge cannot remedy the situ- ation when the linguistic context and excessive syntactic subordination make the meaning of the text so difficult to understand.

However, for the text to achieve all of its communicative objectives, co- herent semantic and syntactic structures are just one of the ingredients. The information must also be packaged in an acceptable (and attractive) format. In this sense, the text can also be regarded as a visual object. When successfully processed by the text receiver, the salient features of the text-object should cor- respond to and resemble those of a similar text profile stored in the receiver's long-term memory. In fact, this is an extremely powerful inference-making mechanism, which transfers all of the properties of the stored text profile to the text-object being perceived. Often, this type of resemblance is responsible in itself for the success of the communication act since it automatically fosters the text receiver's belief in the authority of the message source and the veracity of its contents. This leap of faith on the part of the receiver can even take place when the communicative goal of the sender is deception, and the message is totally false.

For example, this is a common strategy used in phishing e-mails written by people, whose primary interactional goal is to deceive readers into surrendering their bank account information by making them believe that the message was emitted by a prestigious source. An example of such an e-mail is the following:

Receivers are lulled into a trusting mode because the elements in the text lead them to believe that the text source is a prestigious financial institution. This belief is inspired by text format, symbols (a logo), a website address, a precise numerical figure, and linguistic elements and structure, responding to an appropriate interactional frame for this type of formal communication.

An even more eloquent example of how language, textual form, and termi- nology can lend authority and credibility to utter nonsense is the famous spoof scientific paper, "The Endochronic Properties of Resublimated Thiotimoline", written by Isaac Asimov in 1948. Example (177) is an excerpt from the text.

(177) The correlation of the structure of organic molecules with their various properties, physical and chemical, as in recent years afforded much in- sight into the mechanism of organic reactions […]. The solubilities of organic compounds in various solvents has become of particular inter- est in this

connection through the recent discovery of the endochronic nature of thiotimoline (Asimov 1972: 111).

The article, which describes experiments on thiotimoline, a fictitious chemical compound, has the format as well as the syntactic and semantic characteristics of a serious research article. It even includes charts, graphs, tables, and citations of fake articles in nonexistent journals. The results presented in the tables verify the patently false hypothesis that thiotimoline is so soluble that it dissolves in water 1.12 seconds before it even comes in contact with water.

(178) Feinschreiber and Hravlek in their studies on the problem have con- tended that with increasing hydrophilism, the time of solution ap- proaches zero. That this analysis is not entirely correct was shown when it was discovered that the compound thiotimoline will dissolve in wa- ter – in the proportions of 1 gm,/ml. – in *minus* 1.12 seconds. That is, it will dissolve *before* the water is added (Asimov 1972: 111).

Evidently, if the absurd assertion, which is formulated quite directly in (178), had been made outside the context of an extremely specialized scientific paper, and had not been backed up by the impressive display of (false) experimental results, it would have been questioned. However, despite the fact that the text was published in a journal titled Astounding Science Fiction, the article was so convincing that a great many readers were persuaded of the veracity of the information. In fact, after the article was published, the New York City library was bombarded with inquiries from people, who wished to have access to the (nonexistent) journals cited in the article. Asimov's text is a perfect example of a scientific article in every way except for the fact that the information contained in it is absurd. It is also an example of how a suitable linguistic and textual con-
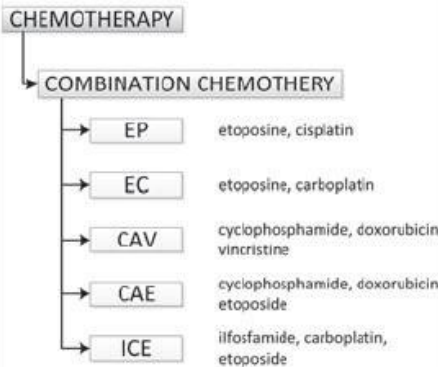
text can be sufficient in itself to provide guarantees of the validity and reliability of textual content.

Construal

Construal is related to speaker perspective, the speech act involved, and the communicative intention of the sender when he/she uses one term instead of another with a similar meaning. As such, it is closely related to the status, shared knowledge, intentions, and expectations of the participants.

Many specialized texts are written by experts for a group of receivers with some level of specialized knowledge. The amount of presupposed knowledge is implicit in the extensive use of terms without definitions. In the case of specialized communication, the existence of a nomenclature (terms and standardized expressions that the sender knows or assumes the receiver will recognize and understand) is indicative of this assumption of shared knowledge. However, in the popularization of scientific knowledge, the same text can be construed in another manner for another set of receivers with less specialized knowledge. This alternate construal is evident in the use of more general, superordinate terms belonging to the same category.

Table 23. Chemotherapy texts for doctors and patients

SPECIALIZED MEDICAL TEXT [INFORMATION FOR DOCTORS]	NON-SPECIALIZED MEDICAL TEXT [INFORMATION FOR PATIENTS]
CHEMOTHERAPY ↳ COMBINATION CHEMOTHERY → EP etoposine, cisplatin → EC etoposine, carboplatin → CAV cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, vincristine → CAE cyclophosphamide, doxorubicin, etoposide → ICE ilfosfamide, carboplatin, etoposide	CHEMOTHERAPY ↳ DRUG
Combination **chemotherapy** with one of the following regimens and chest irradiation (with or without PCI given to patients with complete responses): The following regimens produce similar survival outcomes: EP or EC: **etoposide + cisplatin** or **carboplatin** [17,18] CAV: **cyclophosphamide + doxorubicin + vincristine** [19] CAE: **cyclophosphamide + doxorubicin + etoposide** [20] ICE: **ifosfamide + carboplatin + etoposide**[21]	**Chemotherapy** is the most common treatment for all stages of small cell lung cancer. Chemotherapy may be taken by pill, or it may be put into the body by a needle in the vein or muscle. Chemotherapy is called a systemic treatment because the **drug** enters the bloodstream, travels through the body, and can kill cancer cells outside the lungs, including cancer cells that have spread to the brain.

For example, specialized oncology texts (written for doctors) on chemotherapy treatments for lung cancer may name combinations of drugs (etoposide, cisplatin, carboplatin, cyclophosphamide, etc.). The same information formulated for patients remains at the level of the superordinate term (drug) since it is the most basic level (see Table 23).

As shown in Table 24, the text for doctors frequently uses very specialized anatomical terms without any sort of explicative context (e.g. *hemithorax, mediastinum, supraclavicular lymph nodes*), whereas the text for patients even defines basic terms such as lymph node.

Each term can be said to contain the pragmatic feature of its membership in a particular domain, and refers either implicitly or explicitly to other related terms, as well as to the whole structural configuration of the domain. Both texts represent alternate construals of the same information. In specialized language, construal or speaker perspective often reflects the knowledge shared by the par-ticipants in the act of communication. This signifies that texts can be transmitted in two very different ways depending on the presupposed knowledge of the text receivers.

Another way that construal can be understood is through the use of specialized language as a way of conveying ideology. This can be seen in the text in (179), which is a description of an alternative type of cancer therapy within the context of Ayurveda or Indian medical science.

(179) **The Ayurvedic Approach to Healing The physical level**

Ayurveda approaches the patient on several levels of causes, including the physical, emotional and spiritual. The most superficial level is approaching the symptom, which is the tumor itself. […]

The practitioner must also decide if the patient requires tonification or purification therapy. Strong patients with ama require purification therapies […] Purification therapies reduce ama along with excess dosha. By cleansing the srotas and the subtle nadis of the body, prana can flow freely and support the healing process.

Purification is a reducing therapy, reducing the dhatus of the body as well as the doshas. Since this weakens the body, it should only be performed in patients who are strong enough. Purification therapy can be similarly viewed as cytotoxic, meaning it destroys cells. When applied properly, cellular destruction is directed primarily toward the cancerous cells.

[http://www.ayurvedacollege.com/articles/drhalpern/clinical/cancer/3]

As shown in (179), the terms used in the text (ama, dosha, prana, etc.) encode specialized knowledge as well as the author's ideology regarding healing the human body. The medical text, which describes how to treat and alleviate malignant tumors, is evidently construed for those who believe in natural medical treatments, and who are familiar with the knowledge represented in the text. The Hindu terms without any definition stand in evident contrast to cytotoxic,a more conventional medical term, which does appear in the text with an explanation even though it is more transparent than the others.

In (179), the use of Ayurvedic terminology in the form of loanwords gives the text message an almost religious dimension. Besides conveying the princi- ples of Vedic knowledge inherent in the terms, it also is a signal of the ideo- logical content of the text, which has the quality of an incantation and seems to convey the implicit promise of healing. The following segment of the text in which English terms are substituted for the Hindu loanwords does not produce quite the same effect:

nels and the subtle **pulses o**f the body, **life force/cosmic energy** canflow freely and support the healing process.

The text excerpt in (180) does not include any terms with a clear ideological content, and thus can be said to have a somewhat different construal.

Summary

This chapter has offered a description of Sociocultural and Cognition-oriented Pragmatics, and has explained how both perspectives can be applied to specialized language within the context of Cognitive Linguistics. The reasons for terminological variation, either in the case of individual terminological units or entire utterances, can be found in the analysis of situational parameters, such asframe, context, and construal.

Since terminological units are specialized language representations, the concept of frame is especially relevant as the conceptual network accessed by a term. Such core knowledge can be analyzed in terms of the four types of encyclopedic knowledge specified by Langacker (1987), and is the source of the underspecified meaning of a term, which acquires its full dimensions within a specific context.

Context is a product of language use, and is useful in Terminology as a way of representing the meaning of specialized knowledge units. In this sense, contexts can be either knowledge-rich or knowledge-poor, depending on the information contained. However, contexts are also a means of achieving interactional goals. This applies to both the language and the structure of the text. The text sender's use of terminology as well as his/her choice of text format

can be a statement in themselves, and stand as a guarantee of the reliability and veracity of a text. Construal is related to the speaker's perspective, and is reflected in the way a text sender formulates his/her message for one group of receivers or another. Specialized texts can be construed in a variety of different ways for receivers with different levels of technical or scientific knowledge. A specialized text and the terms in it may also reflect the ideological stance of the text sender.

The Types of Communication

The individuals are constantly communicating with each other through various forms, gestures, expressions and channels. Communication is not all the time conscious. In some cases, it is voluntary as well. There are cases, when the individuals are communicating with each other information, which is misinterpreted and even enable them to form false expressions of their own-selves. If one can stay aware on a regular basis in terms of the types of communication, they are able to understand that types of communication will render a significant contribution in enabling the individuals to communicate in a well-organized and suitable manner. Clear communication is regarded as indispensable. When the individuals need to ensure that they are able to convey the necessary ideas, perspectives, viewpoints and information to the individuals in an appropriate manner, which can be easily understood and one would be able to implement the tasks and functions successfully, they will augment their knowledge and understanding in terms of types of communication.

The understanding of the types of communication enable the individuals to develop communication skills. Communication skills are regarded as indispensable for leading to success of any business. The individuals are different from each other in terms of ways of communication. All the individuals have different traits which have an impact upon the communication processes. In some cases, one may willingly communicate with others, whereas, there are cases, when individuals possess an introvert nature and do not depict interest and enthusiasm in communicating with others. In accordance to the research studies, subordinates usually communicate with their superiors willingly. Whereas, superiors in some cases may not communicate with their subordinates willingly. The major cause is, their busy schedules. Therefore, the job duties, routine and mood of the individuals are also vital factors that have an influence upon the communication processes and the types of communication. All types of communication initiates with the generation of information and the information is put into the data or medium of transmission towards the intended audience (Types of Communication, n.d.).

Understanding the Meaning of Types of Communication

When understanding the meaning of different types of communication, it is vital to understand that communication is the key to the success of any organization. Furthermore, the individuals are able to enrich their lives when they augment their communication skills. The two essential forms of communication are internal and external. External communication is the communication that reaches out to the customers, clients and other individuals outside the organization. It is the job duty of

the employees to impart information to the customers in terms of benefits of products and services, so they are able to increase productivity and profitability. This type of communication includes, brochures, various forms of advertising, contact letters, telephone calls, websites, pamphlets and so forth. In external communication, image is regarded to be of utmost significance. Logo is vital in representing the organization, letterhead is regarded as the selling tool and how the individuals communicate with each other face-to-face or over the phone should reflect professionalism. Furthermore, formal as well as informal contacts with the outsiders is also regarded as an important feature of external communication (Unit: 1 Communication. n.d.).

Internal communication is the communication that takes place among individuals within the organizations. When individuals are recruited within the organizations, it is apparent that they need to possess adequate information in terms of their job duties. Apart from possessing suitable information in terms of one's job duties, they need to communicate effectively with the other members of the organizations. These include, superiors, subordinates and colleagues. Internal communication involves motivating and stimulating the mind-sets of the individuals towards learning and achievement of organizational goals. The internal communication takes place through meetings, organization of seminars and workshops, giving of rewards, notices, emails, newsletters and so forth. This communication can be formal as well as informal. When the superiors are communicating with their subordinates with the purpose of guiding, leading and motivating the employees, they need to ensure they make provision of help and assistance to them to achieve organizational goals and enhance the structure of the organizations. Furthermore, there should be proper grievance redresser procedures as well, which would enable the employees to redress their grievances. Therefore, these aspects signify the meaning and significance of internal communication.

The formal communication network is regarded as the official structure of the organization. It is shown in the organization chart. Information may travel up or down, up or across the hierarchy of the organization (Unit: 1 Communication. n.d.). In the present existence, it is vital for the individuals to augment their skills and abilities in terms of English language. Within various types of organizations and educational institutions at all levels, it is essential for the individuals to be well-equipped with English language. As when the individuals are implementing written as well as oral communication, it is indispensable for them to be well-equipped with English language. Research studies have indicated that individuals, belonging to rural communities and deprived, marginalized and socio-economically backward sections of the society are not well-equipped with English language. Therefore, they get enrolled in educational institutions and training centres to improve their knowledge and competencies. Effective communication is facilitated through the utilization of tools and planning. Therefore, it can be stated, in order to achieve personal and

professional goals and enhance one's career prospects, it is vital for the individuals, belonging to all categories and backgrounds to be well-equipped with English language skills.

Types of Communication

The types of communication is classified into two categories, first form of communication is based on the communication channels, whereas, another form is based on the style and purpose. Communication channels are referred to as the medium, means, manner and methods through which communication takes place between individuals. The senders of information need to ensure that they make selection of the suitable channels of communication, so the information gets conveyed to the individuals satisfactorily. Another form of communication is based on style and purpose. The individuals put into operation, various types of communication, taking into account the traits of style and purpose. Furthermore, the communication based on the channels are non-verbal and verbal. Verbal can be oral and written. Oral communication can take place among the individuals face-to-face or when they are located at a distance. Whereas, the communication types based on style and purpose can be formal and informal (Types of Communication, 2020). The other types of communication are grapevine communication, feedback communication, visual communication and active listening. These have been stated as follows: (Types of Communication, 2020).

Formal Types of Communication

The formal types of communication is also known as official communication. This type of communication is conducted through the pre-determined channel. Within one's profession, the individuals need to communicate with number of individuals. These include, employers, supervisors, colleagues, clients etc. Formal communication forms the core of the professional lives of the individuals. In the effective implementation of this type of communication, there are various factors, which need to be taken into account. These include, purpose of communication, following the well-defined structure of knowing one's audience, keeping the tone open and professional, taking into consideration the time limit and thanking the audience for listening. When the individuals are giving presentations or speeches, then they need to thank their audience for listening. Formal types of communication leads to adequate performance of job duties. Therefore, it is vital for the individuals to be well-aware of this type of communication in order to augment their professionalism and achieve organizational goals.

Informal Types of Communication

Informal communication is put into operation within the organizations among colleagues as well as among superiors and subordinates. This type of communication is also known as unofficial or grapevine communication. The word-of-mouth information is regarded as the primary characteristic of this type of communication. The main features of this type of communication are, it is spontaneous and free-

flowing without any formal protocol or structure. Hence, the level of accuracy and reliability is less in this type of communication. The individuals do not have to follow the rules or take into consideration, the time limit. In most cases, it is carried out orally and does not require document evidence. Informal communication is considered user-friendly and is advantageous to the individuals, when it is put into practice wisely. Within the organizations, when the individuals are carrying out this form of communication, they encourage positive ideas and expressions. As a result, they develop motivation towards their work. Therefore, informal types of communication are important in creating an amiable and pleasant working environmental conditions.

Oral Communication (Face-to-Face)

Oral communication that takes place face-to-face is regarded as most common and recognized type of communication. When the individuals are communicating with each other face-to-face, they aim that through words, they are able to express directly to others. This communication can be formal as well as informal. The individuals communicate face-to-face within the organizations with other members and outside the organizations, it takes place with family members, friends, relatives, community members etc. In face-to-face oral communication, there are various factors, which need to be taken into account. These include, maintaining eye contact, keep the tone and expressions decent, they need to suit the message that needs to be conveyed, one should not depict any negative feelings such as, anger and frustration and develop confidence. When the individuals are delivering lectures, speeches and presentations, they need to be confident and not depict any kind of vulnerability and apprehensiveness. When these factors are put into operation, the individuals are able to hone their oral communication skills, when communicating face-to-face.

Oral Communication (Distance)

Oral communication can take place among the individuals in an appropriate manner, when they are located at a distance. This communication is common and is an integral part of the lives of the individuals. In communicating orally with individuals, who are located at a distance, there are number of methods and technologies, which are utilized. These include, mobile phones, VOIP, video-conferencing, 2-way webinars and so forth. These are regarded as modern and innovative methods, through which oral communication can be promoted among individuals, when they are located at a distance. In the effective implementation of this type of communication, tone of voice and pace of delivery are regarded as crucial. The important factors that need to be taken into account in promoting oral communication at a distance are, listening, speaking slowly, reiterating the information that is understood and keeping the tone of voice open and receptive. In some cases, when the individuals are unable to understand the concepts and other information clearly through oral communication, they may ask to send them through email.

Written Communication

Written communication is the type of communication that takes place in a written form. The common forms of written communication are letters, notices, emails, messages, advertisements and so forth. When the information is lengthy and comprise of images, pictures, charts, graphs, statistical data and so forth, then it cannot be imparted orally to the individuals. In such cases, written communication is regarded as one of the indispensable ways of imparting information. When the individuals are to send documents and reports, then they simply get them scanned and send them through email. When the individuals are communicating with each other in a written form, they need to take into account various factors, these include, addressing appropriately, making use of decent words, stating the information in a clear and understandable manner, stating all the necessary concepts and concluding well by saying thank you and putting the name and signatures. In order to implement written communication in an effective manner, it is vital for the individuals to upgrade their skills in terms of various forms of technologies. When they are well-equipped in terms of usage of computers, lap-tops, I pads and mobile technologies, they will be able to carry out written communication satisfactorily.

Non-Verbal Type of Communication

Non-verbal type of communication is more subtle. It takes place in the daily lives of the individuals as well as within organizational structures. In the implementation of this form of communication, there are number of factors that need to be taken into consideration. These include facial expressions, gestures, body language, eye contact, touch, space and the personality of the individuals. In this type of communication, there are three important features, which need to be identified. These are, what is said with words, what is shared with postures and gestures and the feelings of the individuals influence the messages and information that is imparted. The non-verbal information cues, the way one looks, listens, moves and reacts convey to the individuals that one is communicating with whether or not they are concerned. Furthermore, it is vital for the individuals to impart truthful information. The five roles of non-verbal communication are, repetition, contradiction, substitution, complementing and accenting (Nonverbal Communication, 2019). In order to bring about improvements in non-verbal type of communication, one of the significant aspects is, the individuals need to curb the psychological problems of anger, stress, frustration, depression and anxiety. Furthermore, they need to form a constructive approach and possess an approachable nature. When the individuals are able to augment these factors, they are able to enhance non-verbal types of communication.

Grapevine Communication

Grapevine is regarded as the form of informal communication. It takes place both in the internal as well as external informal channels, which lead to effective functioning and benefit of the organization. Research has indicated that in various

types of organizations, the individuals do not follow any systematic process of communication, but it takes place among individuals without following any prescribed or predetermined rules. Through the grapevine, information flows in different directions, establishing connections between various aspects of the organization. This type of communication is governed by social and personal relationships, rather than any recognized rules and formalities. Grapevine operates in internal and external informal channels. Through this form of communication, the individuals pass rumours, opinions and suspicions that generally do not move through formal channels. Pleasant and amiable environmental conditions within the organizations are essential in developing the sense of belongingness among the individuals. In this manner, they are able to work in collaboration with each other, obtain support and assistance and incur the feeling of job satisfaction. Within organizations, there are number of situations, issues and concerns, regardless of their size and nature. The presence of grapevine is more a product of the situation than it is to the person (Grapevine Communication, 2017).

Feedback Communication

When the individuals, who are in leadership positions in educational institutions and in various forms of organizations, such as, instructors, supervisors, heads, directors, employers and so forth, put into operation various types of assessment methods to evaluate the performance of the individuals. After evaluating the performance, they provide them feedback in terms of their performance. Hence, the communication that takes place is termed as feedback communication. The main objective of feedback communication is to make provision of support and assistance to the individuals to overcome the limitations and bring about improvements. In the implementation of feedback communication in an efficient manner, these individuals need to take into account various factors, these include, inculcating the traits of morality and ethics, being honest and truthful, following the standards and principles and giving constructive criticism. When the individuals experience set-backs in their performance, then limitations need to be identified in a constructive manner. Furthermore, the individuals, in leadership positions need to make provision of help, support and assistance to their students and employees to identify the inconsistencies and bring about improvements. Therefore, within educational institutions at all levels and various types of organizations, this type of communication is regarded as crucial and beneficial.

Visual Communication

Visual communication is also the type of communication that is common in the daily lives of the individuals. The main areas through which visual communication takes place is through televisions, radios, social networking and so forth. When the individuals are watching television or listening to radio programs, then also they are engaged in a form of communication. In some cases, they are not only utilising these for leisure and recreational purposes, but they are also augmenting their knowledge

and understanding in terms of various aspects. When the individuals are communicating with others, then in most cases, their objective is to enhance their knowledge and understanding. Therefore, through some television shows and radio programs as well, the individuals are able to augment their knowledge and understanding. Facebook is visual with the use of memes, videos, images and so forth. Instagram is the only image platform, and the advertisers make use of this platform to market their products (Five Types of Communication, 2018). The images that are posted on social media have the major purpose of conveying the meaning and communicating the message. The individuals are engaged in communications throughout the day. In other words, it takes place on a continuous basis. Therefore, visual communication is also one of the important types of communication.

Active Listening

Active listening is regarded as one of the types of communication that is of utmost significance. It is regarded as the type of communication and it is also an important characteristic that needs to be put into operation in order to make the communication processes effective and meaningful. When the individuals are implementing this form of communication, they are able to benefit in number of ways. These include, acquiring an efficient understanding of the concepts, providing solutions to problems that one experiences in the implementation of job duties, clarifying doubts, augmenting awareness, and able to achieve the desired goals. In addition, when one actively listens to others, they are able to create amiable terms and relationships with them and generate the feelings of pleasure and contentment. Within educational institutions, when the instructors are imparting information in terms of lesson plans and academic concepts, when the supervisors and managers are imparting information in terms of job duties, when there are organization of workshops, seminars and conferences and when the individuals are engaged in oral communication, whether face-to-face or distance, then it is vital for them to promote active listening. Therefore, it can be stated, when one satisfactorily puts into operation this form of communication, they are able to benefit in number of ways.

Communication through Sign Languages

Sign languages are the native languages of the deaf community and make provision of complete access to communication. Although, the sign languages are made use of in most cases by the individuals, who suffer from hearing impairments. When they cannot hear others, then communication takes place with them through the use of sign languages. On the other hand, the individuals, who are mute, they can hear but cannot speak also make use of sign languages. In fact, there are about 138 to 300 different types of sign languages, used throughout the world. New sign languages frequently evolve among the groups of deaf children and adults. Sign languages are regarded as verbal as they contain words and sentences. When the individuals are making use of sign languages, they are communicating, just like others, who use their voices to speak. When the individuals, who suffer from hearing impairments and are

mute make use of sign languages, they are able to communicate efficiently with others. Therefore, this language has been regarded as beneficial to these individuals.

Sign languages are regarded as the visual means of communication. These involve making use of gestures, hand movements, body language and facial expressions to communicate with other individuals. Through these traits, the individuals give and receive information. When oral communication is not possible or desirable, then the individuals make use of sign languages in communicating. The practice of using sign languages is older than speech. Sign languages may be expressed as mere indicating or they may take into consideration, combination of coded manual signals reinforced by facial expressions and perhaps augmented by the words spelled out in manual alphabets. Wherever, vocal communication is not possible between the individuals, they communicate with each other through sign languages. The main objective of sign languages is to ensure that the individuals are able to facilitate giving and receiving of information. The individuals can communicate with each other through sign languages, in which one observes and traces the mutually understood characters in his or her palm (Sign Language, 2020).

The Indian sign language was codified by use into an explicit vocabulary of gestures, representing or depicting objects, actions and ideas, but it made an attempt to spell out or otherwise represent the words that cannot be conveyed by gestures. Several forms of sign languages were developed to enable the individuals to spell out the words and sounds. In most cases, these are regarded as complicated and flexible as compared to spoken languages. National Sign Language, such as, ASL have more in common with one another as compared to the spoken languages of their country of origin. The signs represent the concepts and not the words in any language, i.e. English, Japanese, French, German and so forth. Members of the religious orders, who have taken vows of silence, the other individuals, who for the reasons of piety or humility have forsworn speech, need to make use of sign languages. When the individuals ask for something, it is common that they may point to the objects and there is less use of sign languages (Sign Language, 2020).

Communicating through Facial Expressions

The human face is expressive to a major extent. Through facial expressions, one can express various kinds of feelings, without saying a word. Unlike some forms of non-verbal communication, facial expressions are universal. The facial expressions for happiness, sadness, anger, worry, stress, anxiety, fear and surprise are the same for all the individuals, irrespective of their categories and backgrounds. A facial expression is regarded as one or more emotions or positions of the muscles beneath the skin of the face. These are regarded as the form of non-verbal communication. They are regarded as the primary means of conveying information among individuals. Apart from human beings, facial expressions also occur in some animal species. The individuals usually form their facial expressions depending upon the situations that they are experiencing. It is recommended and vital for the individuals

to keep normal and pleasant facial expressions, even when they are experiencing unfavourable situations.

It is necessary for all individuals to generate information in terms of aspects that need to be implemented to control one's facial expressions. These are, ensuring that the face is relaxed and neutral, one should not possess any kinds of ill feelings against anybody, one should form positive thinking and a constructive approach towards life, when one is serious, one should not frown, learn to control the feelings of anger and frustration, possess an approachable nature, obtain feedback from others regarding facial expressions, reinforce positive aspects and eliminate limitations and negative aspects, implement agreeable attitude and put into practice the traits that are necessary to have normal facial expressions on a regular basis. There are individuals, technologies and various kinds of reading materials, through which individuals acquire information in terms of aspects needed to control one's facial expressions. When the individuals learn to control facial expressions, they will be able to communicate effectively.

Conclusion
The understanding of the types of communication enable the individuals to develop communication skills. The types of communication are, the formal types of communication, informal types of communication, oral communication (face-to-face), oral communication (distance), written communication, non-verbal type of communication, grapevine communication, feedback communication, visual communication and active listening. Sign languages are the native languages of the deaf community and make provision of complete access to communication. Although, the sign languages are made use of in most cases by the individuals, who suffer from hearing impairments and the individuals, who are mute. The facial expressions of the individuals influence the communication processes to a major extent. Therefore, it is vital for the individuals to develop positive thinking and keep normal and pleasant facial expressions. Finally, it can be stated that it is essential for the individuals to ensure they should not let any negative viewpoints and perspectives to become barriers within the course of all types of communication.

2. MUSTAQIL TA'LIM MASHG'ULOTLARI

Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar

№	Mustaqil ta'lim uchun tavsiya etiladigan mavzular:	Soat
1.	Xushmuomalalik kategoriyasi maksimalarini ro'yhatini tuzish va misollar bilan isbotlash;	4
2.	Ingliz va o'zbek tillaridagi milliy-madaniy xususiyatga ega til birliklarini aniqlash va misollar bilan isbotlash;	4
3.	Leksik sathda milliy-madaniy xususiyatga ega til birliklarining ro'yhatini tuzish;	4
4.	Ingliz va o'zbek tillaridagi noverbal muloqotning turlari va shakllarini aniqlash;	4
5.	Milliy dunyo tasvirini aks etuvchi lisoniy birliklar namunalarini yig'ish va ularni tahlil qilish;	4
6	Milliy dunyo tasvirini aks etuvchi lisoniy birliklar namunalarini yig'ish va ularni tahlil qilish	4
7	Stilistik kategoriyalarning kognitiv tabiatini tahlil etish va ularni namoyon bo'lishining xususiyatlarini aniqlash;	4
8	Stilistik vositalarda bilim strukturalarining namoyon bo'lish mexanizmlarini tahlil qilish;	4
9	Nutqiy aktlar turlariga mos misollar yig'ish;	4
10	Kooperatsiya tamoyili maksimalariga misollar yig'ish va ularning pragmatik vazifalarini aniqlash.	4
	JAMI	**40**

Fan bo'yicha kurs ishi. Kurs ishi fan mavzulariga taalluqli masalalar yuzasidan magistrantlarga yakka tartibda tegishli aniq topshiriq shaklida beriladi. Kurs ishining hajmi, rasmiylashtirish shakli, baholash mezonlari ishchi fan dasturida va tegishli kafedra tomonidan belgilanadi. Kurs ishini bajarish magistrantlarda fanga oid bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarni shakllantirishga xizmat qilishi kerak.

Kurs ishi uchun taxminiy mavzular:
1. Antropotsentrik paradigmaning zamonaviy tilshunoslikda egallagan o'rni
2. Kognitiv lingvistikaning asosiy tushunchalari
3. Kontseptualizatsiya va kontseptual struktura
4. Kontsept tushunchasi va uning strukturasi
5. Bilim tuzilmalari va uning turlari
6. Dunyo tasviri va uning turlari
7. Freym nazariyasi va freym analizi.
8. Kognitiv metafora nazariyasi. Kategorizatsiya va kognitiv modellar
9. Prototiplar nazariyasi va E.Roshning kontseptsiyasi

10. Kontseptual tahlil metodlari

11. Lingvomadaniyatshunoslik fanining asosiy tushunchalari

12. Til va madaniyat bog'liqligi Madaniyat turlari va ularning qiyosiy tadqiqi

13. Madaniy belgilar va ularning turlari

14. Milliy-madaniy xususiyat tushunchasi va uni ifoda etuvchi til birliklarining xususiyatlari

15. Lisoniy birliklarning milliy-madaniy xususiyati

16. Monomadaniyat va mul'timadaniyat tushunchalari

17. Frazeologik birliklarning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi

18. Lingvokul'turema va uning turlari

19. Leksik birliklarning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi

20. Sintaktik birliklarning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi

21. Stilistik sathning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi

22. Pragmatika antropotsentrik yo'nalish sifatida Lingvopragmatika fanining asosiy tushunchalari

23. Nutqiy muloqot xususiyatlari

24. Nutqiy akt nazariyasining va nutqiy akt strukturasi

25. Nutqiy akt turlari va klassifikatsiyasi

26. Lingvopragmatikada kooperatsiya tamoyili

27. Kooperatsiya tamoyilining asosiy maksimalari

28. Nutqiy strategiyalar va taktikalar.

29. Nutqiy strategiyalar tipologiyasi Nutqiy ta'sir qilish fenomeni Implikatura nazariyasi

30. Xushmuomalalik kategoriyasi va maksimalar

31. Pragmatik hodisa tushunchasi va uning turlari

32. Pragmatik vazifa tushunchasi va uning turlari

33. Nutqiy faoliyat va diskurs turlari.

34. Adresat va adresant faktorlari

35. Muloqotdagi lingvistik va ekstralingvistik omillar

36. So'z pragmatikasi

37. Til birliklarining lingvopragmatika jihatlari va ularning tahlili

38. Lisoniy shaxs tushunchasi va uning turlari

39. Xorijiy til o'qituvchisining nutq madaniyati.

40. Pedagogik nutq Ilmiy-pedagogik diskursning turlari Muloqotning ilmiy-pedagogi maksimalari

3. GLOSSARIY

GLOSSARY

1. ANDRAGOGY
The study and practice of teaching methods appropriate to working with adults.

2. ANTICLOCKWISE
In the opposite direction to the movement of the hands of a clock.

3. APPLIED LINGUISTICS
i. the study of second and foreign language acquisition and learning
ii. the study of language and linguistics in relation to practical problems, such as
lexicography, translation or speech pathology.

4. ASSESSMENT
The measurement of the ability of a person or the quality or success of a teaching
course, etc. Assessment may be by test, interview, questionnaire, observation and so
on.

5. AUTHENTIC TASK
A task which replicates or resembles a real-life task, e.g. scanning an article for
particular information; this may be contrasted with a task which is specifically designed
for, and only relevant in, the classroom.

6. AUTHENTIC TEXT
Texts which are taken from newspapers, magazines, etc., and tapes of natural speech
taken from ordinary radio or television programmes, etc.
When a teacher prepares texts or tapes for use in the classroom, he/she often has to
use simplified texts as opposed to authentic texts.

7. AUTHENTICITY
The degree to which language teaching materials have the qualities of natural speech or
writing.

8. AUTONOMOUS LEARNING
The process of learning without being controlled by anyone else.

9. AUTONOMY
The ability to act and make decisions without being controlled by anyone else.

10. BRAINSTORMING
i. (in language teaching) a group activity in which learners have a free and relatively
unstructured discussion on an assigned topic as a way of generating ideas.
Brainstorming often serves as preparation for another activity.

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ii. (in teaching writing) a form of prewriting in which a student or group of students write
down as many thoughts as possible on a topic without paying attention to
organization, sentence structure or spelling. Brainstorming serves to gather ideas,
viewpoints, or ideas related to a writing topic and is said to help the writer produce
ideas.

11. BUILDING RAPPORT
Building friendly classroom relationships with and between learners.

12. CHALLENGE
A new or a difficult task that tests somebody's ability and skill.

13. CLOCKWISE
Moving around in the same direction as the hands of a clock.

14. CLT
Communicative language teaching also (communicative approach).
An approach to foreign or second language teaching which emphasizes that the goal of
language learning is communicative competence. The communicative approach has
been developed particularly by British applied linguists as a reaction away from
grammar-based approaches such as the audio-lingual approach. Teaching materials
used with a communicative approach often:
a. teach the language needed to express and understand different kinds of functions,
such as requesting, describing, expressing likes and dislikes, etc.
b. are based on a notional syllabus or some other communicatively organized syllabus
c. emphasize the processes of communication, such as using language appropriately in
different types of situations; using language to perform different kinds of tasks, e.g. to
solve puzzles, to get information, etc.,; using language for social interaction with
other people.

15. COMPREHENSIBLE INPUT
Input language which contains linguistic items that are slightly beyond the learner's
present linguistic competence.

16. CONTEXT
The ideas or content which occurs before and/or after a word, a phrase or even a longer utterance or text. The context often helps in understanding the particular meaning of the word, phrase, etc. For example, the word *loud* in *loud music* is usually understood as meaning "noisy" whereas in *a tie with a loud pattern* it is understood as "unpleasantly colourful". The context may also be the broader social situation in which a linguistic item

is used. For example, in ordinary usage, *spinster* refers to an older unmarried woman but in a legal context it refers to *any* unmarried woman.

17. CO-OPERATIVE LEARNING ALSO (COLLABORATIVE LEARNING)
An approach to teaching and learning in which classrooms are organized so that students work together in small co-operative teams. Such an approach to learning is said to increase students' learning since a) it is less threatening for many students, b) it increases the amount of student participation in the classroom, c) it reduces the need for competitiveness, and d) it reduces the teacher's dominance in the classroom.

18. ELICITATION
Techniques or procedures which a teacher uses to get learners to actively produce a response.

19. EVALUATION
In general, the systematic gathering of information for purposes of decision making. Evaluation uses quantitative methods (e.g. tests), qualitative methods (e.g. observations, ratings) and value judgments. In language teaching programmes, evaluation is related to decisions to be made about the quality of the programme itself, and decisions about individuals in the programmes. The evaluation of programmes may involve the study of curriculum, objectives, materials, and tests or grading systems. The evaluation of individuals involves decisions about entrance to programmes, placement, progress, and achievement. In evaluating both programmes and individuals, tests and other means of assessment are frequently used.

20. FACILITATE
To make a learning process possible or easier; to work with a group in order to help them to articulate ideas.

21. FACILITATOR
a person who helps an individual or a whole group to learn and/or express themselves.

22. FEEDBACK
(in teaching) Comments or information learners receive on the success of a learning task, either from the teacher or from other learners.

23. FLUENCY (FLUENCY DEVELOPING ACTIVITIES)
In second and foreign language teaching, fluency describes a level of proficiency in communication, which includes:
i. the ability to produce written and/or spoken language with ease and without significant hesitation;

ii. the ability to speak with a good but not necessarily perfect command of intonation, vocabulary, and grammar.

24. GENUINE COMMUNICATION
Communication which takes place for a real purpose.

25. GRID
A chart to be filled in by learners or teacher-participants, often used to summarise ideas or to focus reflection.

26. GROUPWORK
(in language teaching) A learning activity which involves a small group of learners working together. The group may work on a single task, or on different parts of a larger task. Tasks for group members are often selected by the members of the group.

27. ICE-BREAKER
An activity to make learners feel less nervous or inhibited when they first meet.

28. INFORMATION GAP ACTIVITY
An activity in which a pair or two groups of students hold different information, or where one partner knows something that the other doesn't. This gives a real purpose to a communication activity.

29. INSE(T)T
In-Service (Teacher) Training

30. INTERACTION PATTERN
Mode of work (individual work, pairwork, groupwork) used in learning or teaching.

31. INTERLANGUAGE
A term used to describe the state of a learner's language – somewhere between being a complete beginner and native speaker standard.

32. JIGSAW ACTIVITY
A type of co-operative activity in which each member of a group has a piece of information needed to complete a group task. Often used in reading work when each learner or group of learners reads and understands a part of a text, then takes part in pooling information to establish the meaning or message of the whole text.

33. LANGUAGE AWARENESS
In ELT, this is an approach to language which takes account of social dimensions of language use as well as encouraging to think about language systems, discourse and communication. It involves exploring authentic language through questions and tasks as well as questioning traditional views of grammar and lexis.

34. LANGUAGE SKILLS
(in language teaching) the mode or manner in which language is used. Listening, speaking, reading, and writing are generally called the four language skills. Sometimes speaking and writing are called the active/**productive skills** and reading and listening, the passive/**receptive skills.** Often the skills are divided into subskills, such as discriminating sounds in connected speech, or understanding relations within a sentence.

35. LEAD-IN
An activity used to orient learners to a new topic or area of focus in a lesson.

36. LEARNING STRATEGIES
Ways in which a learner attempts to work out the meanings and uses of words, grammatical rules, and other aspects of a language, for example by the use of generalization and inferencing, focusing on certain aspects of new information, analyzing, and organizing information during learning to increase comprehension, or evaluating learning when it is completed to see if further action is needed. Learning strategies may be applied to simple tasks such as learning a list of new words, or more complex tasks involving language comprehension and production.

37. LEARNING STYLE
The particular way in which a learner learns. Visual learners, for example, will be helped by pictures, graphics or by seeing a word written down. Auditory learners take in new information best by listening. Kinaesthetic learners benefit from physical involvement in the process of learning.

38. META-LANGUAGE
The language used to analyse or describe a language. For example, the sentence: *In English, the phoneme /b/ is a voiced bilabial stop* is in meta-language. It explains that the *b*-sound in English is made with vibration of the vocal chords and with the two lips stopping the airstream from the lungs.

39. METAPHOR
A word or phrase used in an imaginative way to describe somebody or something, in order to show that the two things have the same qualities and to make the description more powerful.

40. MINGLE ACTIVITY (ALSO *MELEE)*
An activity where people move and talk to each other.

41. MODULE
A unit that can form part of a course of study at a college or university.

42. MONITORING
i.Listening to one's own spoken language to compare what was said with what was intended, and to make corrections if necessary. People generally try to speak fluently and appropriately, and try to make themselves understood, whether in the mother tongue or in the second/foreign language. The interjections and self-corrections that speakers make while talking show that monitoring is taking place, and are usually for the purposes of making meaning clearer. For example:

He is, well, rather difficult.

Can I have, say, a glass of beer?

ii.Teachers often *monitor* their learners' performance in pair- or groupwork, either to check

on the accuracy and appropriacy of their language or to make sure that they are on task.

43. MULTIPLE-CHOICE

In testing or teaching: a device in which the learner is presented with a question along with four or five possible answers from which one must be selected. Usually the first part of a multiple-choice item will be a question or incomplete sentence. This is known as the stem. The different possible answers are known as alternatives. The alternatives typically include one correct answer and several wrong answers or distractors.

For example: *Yesterday I _____ some interesting magazines.*
(a) have bought (b)buying (c) was bought (d) bought

44. OBJECTIVE

Objectives are statements of what is to be achieved in a course or lesson. They are detailed descriptions of exactly what a learner is expected *to be able to do* at the end of a period of learning. This might be a single lesson, a chapter of a book, a term's work, etc. *Aims*, on the other hand, are long-term goals, described in very general terms.

45. OBSERVER

Someone who watches a class, either for learning, training or research purposes. The teacher who is observed is often referred to as the *observee.*

46. PAIRWORK

a learning activity which involves learners working together in pairs.

47. PEDAGOGY

the study of teaching methods and approaches.

48. PEER OBSERVATION

Observation of a teacher or trainee by a colleague of equal status.

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49. PEER CORRECTION

Correction of a learner's mistakes by fellow learners.

50. PORTFOLIO

a collection of work, materials that a learner or course participant collects and puts together in a file, usually for assessment. .

51. POST-SYSTEMATIC ERROR

An error made by a learner *after* s/he has had an opportunity to learn the vocabulary or structure s/he is attempting to use.

52. PRESENTATION

i.The way in which something is offered, shown or explained to others.

ii.A formal monologue to present ideas, opinions or a business proposal.

53. PRESETT

Pre-Service Teacher Training

54. PRE-SYSTEMATIC ERROR

An error made by a learner *before* s/he has learned the structure or vocabulary item s/he is attempting to use.

55. REFLECTIVE PRACTICE; REFLECTIVE TEACHING

An approach to teaching, professional development and teacher education which is based on the assumption that teachers can improve their understanding of teaching and the quality of their own teaching by reflecting critically on their teaching experience. In teacher education programmes, activities which seek to develop a reflective approach to teaching aim to develop the skills of considering the teaching process thoughtfully, analytically and objectively, as a way of improving classroom practices. This may involve the use of:

i. journals in which student teachers or practising teachers write about and describe classroom experiences and use their descriptions as a basis for review and reflection;

ii. audio and video taping of a teacher's lesson by the teacher, for purposes of later review and reflection;

iii. group discussion with peers or a supervisor in order to explore issues that come out of classroom experience.

56. REFLECTION ON LEARNING

An approach to classroom or professional learning which builds in time for reviewing and thinking over each learning experience.

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57. ROLE PLAY

Classroom activities in which students take the *roles* of different participants in a

situation and act out what might typically happen in that situation. For example, to practise how to express complaints and apologies in a foreign language, students might have to role-play a situation in which a customer in a shop returns a faulty article to a salesperson.

58. SCANNING

A type of speed reading technique which is used when the reader wants to locate a particular piece of information without necessarily understanding the rest of a text or passage. For example, the reader may read a chapter of a book as rapidly as possible in order to find out information about a particular date, such as when someone was born. Scanning may be contrasted with *skimming* or *skim reading*, which is a type of rapid reading used when the reader wants to get the main idea or ideas from a passage. For example, a reader may skim-read a chapter to find out if the writer approves or disapproves of something.

59. SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION (SLA)

(in applied linguistics) the processes by which people learn or acquire a second or foreign language. These processes are often investigated with the expectation that information about them may be useful in language teaching.

60. SELF-CORRECTION

Correction by a learner of her/his own mistakes – usually possible only in the case of *post-systematic* errors.

4. ILOVALAR:

fan dasturi;
ishchi fan dasturi;
testlar;
tarqatma materiallar
baholash mezonlarini qo'llash bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmalar;

FAN DASTURI

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН РЕСПУБЛИКАСИ
ОЛИЙ ВА ЎРТА МАХСУС ТАЪЛИМ ВАЗИРЛИГИ

ЎЗБЕКИСТОН ДАВЛАТ ЖАҲОН ТИЛЛАРИ УНИВЕРСИТЕТИ

"ТАСДИҚЛАЙМАН"

Ректор_____ Б.Кулматов

2020 йил "30"_____

"КЕЛИШИЛДИ"

Олий ва ўрта махсус таълим вазирлиги

_____

2020 йил "14" 08

ЗАМОНАВИЙ ЛИНВИСТИКА

ФАН ДАСТУРИ

Билим соҳаси:	100000	– Гуманитар
Таълим соҳаси:	120000	– Гуманитар фанлар
Магистратура		
мутахассислиги:	5А120102	– Лингвистика (роман-герман тиллари)

Фан/модуль коди ZLING20110	Ўкув йили 2020-2021	Семестр 1-2	ECTS - Кредитлар 10
Фан/модуль тури Мажбурий	Таълим тили Инглиз/немис/француз/испан		Ҳафтадаги дарс соатлари 4/4

	Фаннинг номи	Аудитория машғулотлари (соат)	Мустақил таълим (соат)	Жами юклама (соат)
1.				
	Замонавий лингвистика	120	180	300

2.

I. Фаннинг мазмуни

Ўкув фанининг мақсади – магистрантларда замонавий лингвистиканинг методологик принциплари, долзарб муаммолари ва асосий тушунчалари бўйича мутахассислик профилига мос илмий билим, кўникма ва малакаларни шакллантириш ва такомиллаштириш, замонавий лингвистик тахлил методларини эгаллаш ҳамда замонавий лингвистик йўналишлари соҳасида илмий тадқиқот олиб бориш кўникмаларини ривожлантириш.

Ўкув фанининг вазифаси – замонавий лингвистиканинг асосий муаммолари бўйича таянч илмий билимларни бериш, замонавий лингвистикада фойдаланиладиган замонавий таҳлил методлари, тил ва маданиятлараро мулоқот, тил ва нутк ўзаро муносабати ҳамда замонавий лингвистик йўналишлар соҳасида илмий тадқиқот олиб боришга ўргатиш.

II. Асосий назарий кисм (маъруза машғулотлари)
II.I. Фан таркибига қуйидаги мавзулар киради:
1-модуль. Когнитив лингвистика
1-мавзу. Парадигма илмий система сифатида

Илмий парадигма тушунчаси. Т. Куннинг парадигмалар назарияси ва унинг фанга таъсири. Тилшунослик тарихидаги парадигмалар силжиши. Қиёсий-тарихий парадигма, унинг ривожланиш тарихи ва хусусиятлари ҳамда тилшунослик фанига қўшган хиссаси. Структурализм парадигмаси, унинг ривожланиш тарихи ва хусусиятлари. Структурализм парадигмасининг тилшунослик фани ривожланишида эгаллаган ўрни.

2-мавзу. Антропоцентрик парадигма

Антропоцентризм тушунчаси. Антропоцентрик парадигма ва унинг хусусиятлари. Антропоцентрик парадигманинг замонавий тилшуносликда эгаллаган ўрни ва хусусиятлари. Антропоцентрик лингвистик йўналишлар

3-мавзу. Когнитив лингвистика фанига кириш

Когнитив лингвистика тўғрисида умумий маълумотлар. Фаннинг шаклланиши ва ривожланиши тарихи. Когнитив лингвистиканинг фанлараро алоқалари. Когнитив лингвистиканинг асосий назарий тамойиллари. Когнитив лингвистика фанининг методологик базаси. Когнитив лингвистика замонавий тилшуносликнинг етакчи йўналиши сифатида. Когнитив лингвистика доирасида чет

эл ва Ўзбекистонда амалга оширилган тадкикотлар ва уларнинг ютуклари.

4-мавзу. Когнитив лингвистика йўналишлари: когнитив грамматика ва когнитив семантика

Когнитив семантика ва унинг тадкикот объекти. Семантик фрейм тушунчаси. Ч.Филлмор концепцияси. Фрейм структураси. Концептуал макон (домейн) тушунчаси ва унинг турлари. Когнитив грамматика. Когнитив семантика ва унинг тадкикот объекти. Когнитив грамматика ва унинг тадкикот объекти.

5- мавзу. Когнитив лингвистика йўналишлари: Когнитив стилистка

Когнитив стилистика ва унинг тадкикот объекти. Когнитив услуб тушунчаси. Стилистик воситаларнинг когнитив мохияти. Когнитив стилискикада категориялаштириш ва концептуаллаштириш муаммолари.

6-мавзу. Концептуаллаштириш ва категориялаштириш масалалари

Когниция тушунчаси. Оламни когнитив идрок этиш масаласи. Концептуаллаштириш (онгда концептлар хосил килиш) тушунчаси. Концептуал тузилмалар ва концептуал система тушунчалари. Категория ва категориялаштириш тушунчаси. Категориялаштириш когнитив фаолият сифатида. Категориялаштириш ва иделлашган когнитив моделлар. "Оилавий мутаносиблик" концепцияси. Э.Рошнинг прототиплар назарияси. Концептуал ва лисоний дунё тасвири тушунчалари ва уларнинг ўзаро муносабатлари.

7-мавзу. Билим тузилмалари ва уларнинг вербаллашуви

Билим тузилмаси тушунчаси. Билим тузилмасига турли ёндашувлар. Билим тузилмалари турлари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари. Билим тузилмаларининг тилда бирликларида акс этиши ва вербаллашув усуллари. Билим тузилмаларининг тил бирликларида акс этиши. Билим тузилмалари турлари ва шакллари. Билим тузилмалари типологияси. Когнитив модель тушунчаси. Билим тузилмалари шакллари: гештальт, схема, сценарий, скрипт назариялари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари.

8-мавзу. Концепт – когнитив лингвистиканинг асосий тушунчаси сифатида

Концепт тушунчаси. Концепт – концептуал ва тафаккур бирлиги сифатида. Концептитни тадкик этишда лингвокогнитив ва лингвокультурологик ёндашувлар. Концепт ва маъно. Концепт ва тушунча. Когнитив лингвистикада маъно интерпретацияси. Концептлар ва уларни таснифлаш принциплари. Концепт билимлар тузилмаси сифатида. Концепт структураси.

9-мавзу. Концепт турлари ва концептни таҳлил қилиш методлари

Концепт турлари. Универсал концептлар. Миллий-маданий концептлар. Индивидуал концептлар. Структуравий концептлар. Билим тузилмалари ифодалаш тамойилига кўра концепт турлари. Концептнинг вербаллашув усуллари. Концептни таҳлил қилиш йўллари.

10-мавзу. Концептуал метафора назарияси

Когнитив метафора категориялаштиришни амалга оширувчи когнитив фаолият сифатида. Дж.Лакофф ва М.Джонсоннинг концепцияси. Когнитив метафоранинг универсал характери. Когнитив метафора тафаккур бирлиги сифатида. Когнитив метафорани ўрганишда турли ёндашувлар. Когнитив метафоранинг тилда акс этилиши. Когнитив метафоранинг турлари. Структуравий метафора ва унинг хусусиятлари. Онтологик метафора. Контейнер метафора. Ўзатувчи метафора ва унинг хусусиятлари.

11 –мавзу. Концептуал интеграция назарияси

Концептуал интеграция назарияси. концептуал интеграция назариясининг шаклланиши. Концептуал интеграция назариясини амалга ошириш механизми. Бленд тушунчаси. Инпут тушунчаси. Кросс-домейн тушунчаси.

12-мавзу. Ахборотни тил бирликларида тақсимлаш тамойиллари

Когнитив лингвистикада концептуал ахборот тушунчаси. Концептуал ахборотнинг тил бирликларида тақсимланиши ва уларни тадқиқ этиш Концептуал ахборотнинг вербаллашув усуллари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари. Мос келиш (релевантлик) тамойили ва унинг хусусиятлари. Икониклик тамойили ва унинг хусусиятлари. Икониклик тамойили ва унинг турлари. Тилдаги тежамкорлик ва ортиқчалик тамойили ва уларнинг хусусиятлари. Тил бирликларида тақсимланган ахборотни таҳлил қилиш ва ахборотни юзага чиқариш усуллари.

13-мавзу. Концептуал таҳлил методлари

Когнитив моделлаштириш методи. Когнитив харита тузиш техникаси. Концептуал таҳлил методи. Концептуал метафорик таҳлил методи ва унинг техникаси. Тил бирликларининг фрейм таҳлили ва уни қўллаш техникаси.

2-модуль. Лингвомаданиятшунослик

1-мавзу. Тил – маданият – элат масаласининг тилшуносликдаги муаммоси

Тил маданиятни акс этувчи восита сифатида. В.фон Гумбольдт, Б. Уорф, Э. Сепир концепциялари ва назариялари. Сепир-Уорфнинг лингвистик мутаносиблик назарияси. Тил маданий кодни вербаллаштирувчи восита сифатида (А.А. Потебня, Леви-Стросс, Ф.И. Буслаев) назариялар. Тилшуносликдаги лингвомаданий мактаблар (Ю.С. Степанов, Н.Д. Арутюнова, В.Н. Телия, В.В. Воробьев).

2-мавзу. Лингвомаданиятшунослик фан сифатида ва унинг ўрганиш объекти ва асосий тушунчалари

Лингвомаданиятшунослик фани ривожланишининг асосий босқичлари ва йўналишлари ва унинг тилшуносликда эгаллаган ўрни. Тил ва маданият ўзаро боғлиқлиги масаласи. Лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг мақсади ва вазифалари. Лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг ўрганиш объекти ва асосий тушунчалари. Лингвомаданиятшунослик фани доирасида чет эл ва Ўзбекистонда амалга оширилган тадқиқотлар ва уларнинг ютуқлари.

3-мавзу. Лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг йўналишлари

Лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг анъанавий ва замонавий лингвистик фанлар билан боғлиқлиги. Лингвомаданиятшуносликнинг йўналишлари: диахроник лингвомаданиятшунослик ва унинг тадқиқот объекти, чоғиштирма лингвомаданиятшунослик ва унинг тадқиқот объекти, лингвомаданий лексикография ва унинг тадқиқот объекти.

4-мавзу. Қиёсий лингвомаданиятшунослик фан сифатида

Қиёсий лингвомаданиятшунослик фани ривожланишининг асосий босқичлари ва йўналишлари. Қиёсий лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг мақсади ва вазифалари. Қиёсий лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг ўрганиш объекти ва асосий тушунчалари. Маданият турлари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари.

5-мавзу. Лисоний ва миллий дунё тасвирлари тушунчалари

Дунё тасвири тушунчаси. Дунё тасвири шахс ва ижтимоий онг асосини ташкил этувчи дунё тўғрисидаги билимлар мажмуи сифатида. Дунё тасвири турлари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари: концептуал дунё тасвири, лисоний дунё тасвири, миллий дунё тасвири. Лисоний ва миллий дунё тасвирининг аксиологик жиҳати. Лисоний дунё тасвирни таҳлил қилиш методлари. Миллий дунё тасвир ва унинг хусусиятлари. Миллий дунё тасвирлари турлари. Миллий дунё тасвирини вербаллаштирувчи лисоний бирликлар

6-мавзу. Лингвокультурема – лингвомаданиятшуносликнинг асосий тушунчаси сифатида

Миллий-маданий хусусият тушунчаси. Миллий-маданий хусусиятга эга тил бирликлар. Лингвокультурема тушунчаси. Лингвокультурема ўз ичига шакл ва маънони олувчи сатҳлараро бирлик сифатида. Лингвокультурема маданий бирлик сифатида. Лингвокультурема турли тил шакллари орқали ифода этилиши.

7-мавзу. Лингвокультурема турлари ва шакллари

Лингвокультурема турлари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари. Реалия тушунчаси ва унинг турлари. Фразеологик бирликларнинг миллий-маданий хусусиятлари. Мақолларнинг миллий-маданий хусусиятлари. Стилистик воситаларнинг миллий-маданий хусусиятлари. Афоризмлар миллий дунёни акс этувчи тил бирликлари сифатида. Лингвокультуремаларнинг қиёсий тадқики.

8-мавзу. Миллий-маданий хусусиятга эга тил бирликларнинг қиёсий тадқики

Чет тили ва она тилидаги миллий-маданий хусусиятга эга лисоний бирликларнинг қиёсий тадқики: эквивалентсиз лексика, реалиялар; мифологик тил бирликлари; паремиологик тил бирликлари; фразеологик бирликлар; эталонлар, стереотиплар, символлар; метафора ва образлар (тимсоллар); тилларнинг стилистик қатлами (адабий ва ноадабий шакллар ва ҳ.к.);

9-мавзу. Нутқ этикетининг миллий-маданий хусусиятлари

Нутқ этикети ва унинг турлари (саломлашиш, хайирлашиш, буйруқ бериш, илтимос этиш, кечирим сўраш ва ҳк.). Нутқ этикетининг миллий-маданий хусусиятлари. Сўзлашув одоби ва феъл-атвор. Нутқ этикетининг қиёсий тадқики.

10-мавзу. Лингвомаданий тадқиқ методлари

* қиёсий-чоғиштирма – бу метод лисоний бирликларнинг фарқли ва ўхшашлик тарафларини аниқлашга йўналтирилган;
* компонент таҳлил – ушбу метод ўрганилаётган лингвомаданий бирликларнинг лексик сатҳда вербаллашувидаги парадигматик ва синтагматик алоқаларини аниқлашга қаратилган;
* кросс-маданий таҳлил методи турли тиллардаги лисоний бирликларнинг миллий-маданий хусусиятларини аниқлашга қаратилган;
* тавсифий-аналитик - бу метод кузатиш, таққослаш ва умулаштиришни ўз ичига олади ҳамда далилий материалларни йиғади ва уларнинг классификацияси билан шуғулланади;
* тадқиқ этилаётган тил бирликлари семантикасини ўрганишга қаратилган семантик таҳлил методи

3 модуль. Лингвопрагматика

1-мавзу. Лингвопрагматика фанига кириш
Лингвопрагматика замонавий лингвистик йўналиш сифатида. Лингвопрагматика фанининг шаклланиши ва ривожланиши тарихи. Лингвопрагматика фанининг мақсади, ўрганиш объекти ва асосий тушунчалари.

2-мавзу. Нутқий акт назарияси ва хушмуомалалик тамойили
Нутқий акт назариясининг шаклланиши ва ривожланиш тарихи. Нутқий акт тушунчаси ва турлари: локутив, иллокутив, перлокутив актлар. Перформатив нутқий актлар. Нутқий стереотип. Хушмуомалалик нутқий қоидалар сифатида (Р.Лакофф, Дж. Лич, Г. Грайс). Хушмуомалалик категориясининг максималари (саховат максимаси, розилик максимаси, симпатия максимаси, камтарлик максимаси ва хк.). Хушмуомалалик турлари ва уларнинг турлари. Ижобий ва салбий хушмуомалалик. Хушмуомалалик дискурс сифатида (Р. Уоттс назарияси).

3-мавзу. Импликатура назарияси, нутқий таъсир ва манипуляция
Импликатура назариясининг асосий холатлари. Импликатуралар турлари: конвенционал импликатуралар, ноконвенционал импликатуралар. Нутқий таъсир кўрсатиш турлари. Манипуляция тушунчаси ва стратегиялари. Коммуникатив стратегиялар ва тактикалар. Нутқий актнинг прагматик хусусиятлари.

4-мавзу. Адресат ва адресант факторлари.
Коммуникатив-прагматик ходиса тушунчаси. Прагматик вазифалар турлари. Адресат ва адресант факторлари. Лингвистик ва экстралингвистик факторлар. Контекст, шакл, мулоқот оханги ва мақсади, етказиш ва қабул қилиш воситалари. Коммуникатив актнинг прагматик эффективлиги. Коммуникатив стратегиялар ва тактикалар.

5-мавзу. Лисоний шахс назарияси
Бадиий матннинг ўзига хосликлари. Лисоний шахс тушунчаси. Лисоний шахс турлари. Лисоний шахснинг таркибий қисмлари ва структураси. Лисоний шахснинг когнитив қатлами. Лисоний шахснинг семантик-стилистик қатлами. Лисоний шахснинг лингвопрагматик қатлами. Лисоний шахснинг лингвокультурологик қатлами. Лисоний шахсни ифода этувчи тил бирликлари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари. Лисоний шахсни тахлил этиш методикаси.

6 – мавзу. Мулоқот ва унинг турлари. Кооперация тамойиллари
Мулоқотнинг турлари. Коммуникатив актни тушуниш ва тўғри қўллаш. Коммуникатив барьер тушунчаси ва уни енгиш тактикалари. Кооперация тамойилининг асослари ва унинг инсонлараро мулоқотдаги урни. Кооперация тамойилининг асосий максималари. Миқдор максимаси, сифат максимаси, релевантлик максимаси, услуб максимаси.

7 – мавзу. Новербал мулоқот ва унинг вазифалари
Новербал мулоқотнинг вербал мулоқотдан фарқли жиҳатлари, хусусиятлари ва вазифалари. Мулоқотни новербал ташкил қилиш шакллари ва уни тушунишда йўл қўйиладиган потенциал прагматик хатолар.

8-мавзу. Халқаро ва соҳалараро мулоқот

Халқаро мулоқотдаги ижтимоий-этикет омиллари. Бизнес ва оммавий ахборотга хос мулоқот турлари. Прагматик муваффақиятсизликлар. Мулоқотни прагматик муваффақиятли ташкил этишда хисобга олинадиган 8 аспект: қачон ва нимани қандай гапириш нормалари, тезлик ва пауза холати, тинглаш маданияти, интонация ва оҳанглилик, услубий хосликлар, фикрни зоҳиран таҳлил қилиш, мантиқий боғлилик) ҳақида тушунча бериш.

9-мавзу Оғзаки ва ёзма дискурс хусусиятлари.

Дискурс тушунчаси ва унинг ривожланиш тарихи. Бугунги кунда қўлланиладиган дискурс тушунчасига оид шарҳлар. Дискурс турлари. Дискурс таҳлили. Лингвистик йўналишларга кўра таҳлил қилинадиган дискурс таксономияси. Оғзаки дискурс хусусиятлари. Оғзаки дискурснинг Хайм жадвали (вазият, вақт, жой, иштирокчилар, мақсад, жанр,натижа)га кўра таҳлили. Ёзма дискурс шакллари ва таҳлили, унинг оғзаки дискурсдан фарқи.

10-мавзу. Ижтимоий тармоқдаги дискурс

Ижтимоий тармоқдаги дискурснинг ўзига хослиги ва унинг компютер воситасида олиб бориладиган схема таҳлили (Computer medidated scheme). Синхронлик, давомийлий, тармоқ шакли ва иштирокчилари, маълумот ҳажми ва формати, оммага тақдим этиш даражаси. Виртуал мулоқот учун вужудга келган аббревиатуралар ва янги сўзлар

11-мавзу. Жамоавий муносабатларнинг прагматик аспекти

Шахсни жамиятдаги ролини белгилашда дискурснинг роли. Бухолтз принциплари: шахснинг жамоавий муносабатларга киришидаги дастлабки босқич, мулоқот вазифаси ва турлари, ғоялар ва уларнинг шарҳи, ўзаро боғлиқлик ва субординация, маънавий ва маданий қарашлар роли, шахсий дискурс шаклига кўра белгиланган 7 имидж. Ўз нутқини чиройли тақдим қилиш нормалари. "Сен номли бренд" тушунчаси таҳлили. Резюме, интервью ва мотивацион хатлар ёзишдаги асосий нормалар ва маслаҳатлар

12-мавзу. Раҳбарлик ва гендер дискурснинг прагматик жиҳати

Шахс қудрати ва салоҳиятини белгилашда дискурс роли. Сиёсий дискурс ва идеология. Лидер ролини яратишда хизмат қиладиган дискурс ва нутқий актлар таҳлили. Гендер дискурс ҳақида умумий тушунча. Аёл ва эркак нутқидаги фарқлар таҳлили. Гендер тушунчасига умумий тавсиф. Феминизм ҳодисаси. Гендер дискурси таҳлили учун Коатс тавсия этган 3 ёндашув: Доминантлик, Дифференциал ва Ижтимоий конструктивизм.

III. Семинар машғулотлари бўйича кўрсатма ва тавсиялар

Семинар машғулотлар учун қуйидаги мавзулар тавсия этилади:

1. Антропоцентрик парадигманинг замонавий тилшуносликда эгаллаган ўрни
2. Когнитив лингвистиканинг асосий тушунчалари
3. Когнитив лингвистика йўналишлари
4. Концептуализация ва концептуал структура
5. Концепт тушунчаси ва унинг структураси
6. Билим тузилмалари ва унинг турлари
7. Дунё тасвири ва унинг турлари
8. Фрейм назарияси ва фрейм анализи
9. Когнитив метафора назарияси
10. Категоризация ва когнитив моделлар
11. Прототиплар назарияси ва Э.Рошнинг концепцияси

12. Концептуал таҳлил методлари
13. Лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг асосий тушунчалари
14. Тил ва маданият боғлиқлиги
15. Маданиэт турлари ва уларнинг қиёсий тадқиқи
16. Маданий белгилар ва уларнинг турлари
17. Миллий-маданий хусусият тушунчаси ва уни ифода этувчи тил бирликларининг хусусиятлари
18. Лисоний бирликларнинг миллий-маданий хусусияти
19. Мономаданият ва мультимаданият тушунчалари
20. Фразеологик бирликларнинг лингвомаданий ва қиёсий тадқиқи
21. Лингвокультурема ва унинг турлари
22. Лексик бирликларнинг лингвомаданий ва қиёсий тадқиқи
23. Синтактик бирликларнинг лингвомаданий ва қиёсий тадқики
24. Стилистик сатҳнинг лингвомаданий ва қиёсий тадқики
25. Прагматика антропоцентрик йўналиш сифатида
26. Лингвопрагматика фанининг асосий тушунчалари
27. Нутқий мулоқот хусусиятлари
28. Нутқий акт назариясининг ва нутқий акт структураси
29. Нутқий акт турлари ва классификацияси
30. Лингвопрагматикада кооперация тамойили
31. Кооперация тамойилининг асосий максималари
32. Нутқий стратегиялар ва тактикалар.
33. Нутқий стратегиялар типологияси
34. Нутқий таъсир қилиш феномени
35. Импликатура назарияси
36. Хушмуомалалик категорияси ва максималар
37. Прагматик ҳодиса тушунчаси ва унинг турлари
38. Прагматик вазифа тушунчаси ва унинг турлари
39. Нутқий фаолият ва дискурс турлари.
40. Адресат ва адресант факторлари
41. Мулоқотдаги лингвистик ва экстралингвистик омиллар
42. Лисоний шахс тушунчаси ва унинг турлари
43. Шахсни жамиятдаги ролини белгилашда дискурснинг роли
44. Дискурс ва ҳокимият
45. Тил ўрганувчининг прагматик компетенцияларини шакллантириш
46. Халқаро мулоқотдаги ижтимоий-этикет омиллари
47. Прагматик муваффаққиятсизликлар
48. Виртуал мулоқот хусусиятлари

Семинар машғулотлари мультимедиа воситалари билан жиҳозланган аудиторияда семинар гуруҳга бир ўқитувчи томонидан ўтказилиши лозим. Семинар машғулотларида талабалар замонавий лингвистика фани бўйича маърузада олган билим ва кўникмаларини ушбу фандаги турли тамойилларни амалий масалалар, амалий машқлар, тақдимотлар, гуруҳ музокаралари орқали янада бойитадилар. Шунингдек, дарслик ва ўқув қўлланмалар асосида талабалар билимларини мустаҳкамлашга эришиш, тарқатма материаллардан фойдаланиш, илмий мақолалар ва тезисларни чоп этиш орқали талабалар билимини ошириш, мавзулар бўйича тақдимотлар, баҳс-мунозаралар, гуруҳ музокаралар ўтказиш ва бошқалар тавсия этилади.

Курс иши бўйича кўрсатма ва тавсиялар

Курс иши учун тахминий мавзулар:
1. Антропоцентрик парадигманинг замонавий тилшуносликда эгаллаган ўрни

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2. Когнитив лингвистиканинг асосий тушунчалари
3. Концептуализация ва концептуал структура
4. Концепт тушунчаси ва унинг структураси
5. Билим тузилмалари ва унинг турлари
6. Дунё тасвири ва унинг турлари
7. Фрейм назарияси ва фрейм анализи
8. Когнитив метафора назарияси
9. Категоризация ва когнитив моделлар
10. Прототиплар назарияси ва Э.Рошнинг концепцияси
11. Концептуал таҳлил методлари
12. Концептуал интеграция ва унинг моделлари
13. Икониклик тамойили
14. Ахборотни илгари суриш назарияси
15. Лингвомаданиятшунослик фанининг асосий тушунчалари
16. Тил ва маданият боғлиқлиги
17. Маданият турлари ва уларнинг киёсий тадкиби
18. Маданий белгилар ва уларнинг турлари
19. Маданий қадриятлар ва уларнинг турлари
20. Маколларнинг лингвомаданий ва киёсий тадкики
21. Нуткий этикетнинг миллий-маданий спецификаси
22. Нуткий этикетнинг турлари
23. Саломлашиш ва унинг миллий-маданий спецификаси
24. Мифологема турлари в уларнинг когнитив аҳамияти
25. Мифологемаларнинг миллий-маданий хусусиятлари
26. Эстетик маданий қадриятлар ва уларнинг вербаллашуви
27. Миллий маданий қадриятлар (инглиз ва ўзбек тилида)
28. Универсал миллий кадриятлар
29. Мифологик билим тузилмалари ва уларнинг репрезенталлашуви
30. Адабий билим тузилмаларнинг вербаллашуви
31. Ижтимоий билим тузилмаларнинг вербаллашуви
32. Миллий-маданий хусусият тушунчаси ва уни ифода этувчи тил бирликларининг хусусиятлари
33. Лисоний бирликларнинг миллий-маданий хусусияти
34. Мономаданият ва мультимаданият тушунчалари
35. Фразеологик бирликларнинг лингвомаданий ва киёсий тадкики
36. Лингвокультурема ва унинг турлари
37. Лексик бирликларнинг лингвомаданий ва киёсий тадкики
38. Халкаро мулокотдаги ижтимоий-этикет омиллари
39. Прагматик муваффакжиятсизликлар
40. Виртуал мулокот хусусиятлари
41. Синтактик бирликларнинг лингвомаданий ва киёсий тадкики
42. Стилистик сатхнинг лингвомаданий ва киёсий тадкики
43. Прагматика антропоцентрик йўналиш сифатида
44. Лингвопрагматика фанининг асосий тушунчалари
45. Нуткий мулокот хусусиятлари
46. Нуткий акт назариясининг ва нуткий акт структураси
47. Нуткий акт турлари ва классификацияси
48. Лингвопрагматикада кооперация тамойили
49. Кооперация тамойилининг асосий максималари
50. Нуткий стратегиялар ва тактикалар.
51. Нуткий стратегиялар типологияси
52. Гендер дискурс хусусиятлари

53. Нутқий таъсир қилиш феномени
54. Импликатура назарияси
55. Хушмуомалалик категорияси ва максималар
56. Прагматик ҳодиса тушунчаси ва унинг турлари
57. Прагматик вазифа тушунчаси ва унинг турлари
58. Нутқий фаолият ва дискурс турлари.
59. Адресат ва адресант факторлари
60. Мулоқотдаги лингвистик ва экстралингвистик омиллар
61. Сўз прагматикаси
62. Тил бирликларининг лингвопрагматика жиҳатлари ва уларнинг таҳлили
63. Лисоний шахс тушунчаси ва унинг турлари
64. Контрастив риторика

Курс иши фан мавзуларига тааллукли масалалар юзасидан магистрантларга якка тартибда аниқ топшириқ шаклида берилади. Курс ишининг ҳажми, расмийлаштириш шакли, баҳолаш мезонлари ишчи фан дастурида ва тегишли кафедра томонидан белгиланади. Курс ишини бажариш магистрантларда фанга оид билим, кўникма ва малакаларни шакллантиришга хизмат қилиши керак.

IV. Мустақил таълим ва мустақил ишлар

Мустақил таълим учун тавсия этиладиган мавзулар:
1. Дунёни интерпретация қилишда тилнинг роли
2. Билим тузилмалари: фрейм, схема, концепт, сценарий ва уларнинг ифодаланиши
3. Тил ва тафаккур, тил ва маданият боғликлиги
4. Тил – билим тузилмаларини ва маданиятни намоён этувчи, сакловчи ва ўзатувчи восита сифатида
5. Когнитив метафора ментал ва маданий модел сифатида
6. Миллий характерга эга реалиялар рўйхатини тузиш
7. Лингвокультурема турлари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари
8. Фразеологик бирликларининг миллий-маданий хусусиятлари
9. Маданий белгилар ва уларнинг турлари
10. Прагматикада адресат ва адресант факторлари
11. Атрибуция ва унинг турлари
12. Нутқий мулоқот хусусиятлари
13. Прагматик вазифалар ва уларнинг типологияси
14. Хушмуомалалик категорияси ва унинг турлари
15. Лисоний шахс ва унинг турлари
16. Стереотип ва уларнинг турлари
17. Хорижий тил ўқитувчисининг илмий-педагогик нутқ маданияти
18. Мулоқотдаги лингвистик ва экстралингвистик омилларни аниклаш ва типологиясини амалга ошириш
19. Маданий маваффакиятсизликларни олдини олиш
20. Хушмуомалалик категорияси максималарини рўйхатини тузиш ва мисоллар билан исботлаш;
21. Инглиз/немис/француз/испан, рус ва ўзбек тилларидаги миллий-маданий хусусиятга эга тил бирликларини аниклаш ва мисоллар билан исботлаш;
22. Лексик сатҳда миллий-маданий хусусиятга эга тил бирликларининг рўйхатини тузиш;
23. Инглиз/немис/француз/испан, рус ва ўзбек тилларидаги лингвокультуремалар рўйхатини тузиш;
24. Инглиз/немис/француз/испан, рус ва ўзбек тилларидаги новербал мулоқотнинг турлари ва шаклларини аниклаш;

	25. Миллий дунё тасвирини акс этувчи лисоний бирликлар намуналарини йиғиш ва уларни таҳлил қилиш;
	26. Стилистик категорияларнинг когнитив табиатини таҳлил этиш ва уларни намоён бўлишининг хусусиятларини аниқлаш;
	27. Стилистик воситаларда билим структураларининг намоён бўлиш механизмларини таҳлил қилиш;
	28. Нутқий актлар турларига мос мисоллар йиғиш;
	29. Кооперация тамойили максималарига мисоллар йиғиш ва уларнинг прагматик вазифаларини аниқлаш
	30. Шахсни жамиятдаги ролини белгилашда дискурснинг роли
	31. Шахс қудрати ва салоҳиятини белгилашда дискурс роли
	32. Лидер ролини яратишда хизмат қиладиган дискурс ва нутқий актлар таҳлили

Магистрантларнинг мустақил иши дастурнинг асосий бўлимлари асосида режалаштирилади ва қуйидаги иш турларини назарда тутади:

• амалий тил материалини йиғиш, карточкалар тузиш, когнитив лингвистиканинг назарий ва амалий муаммолари бўйича тестлар тузиш;

• маълум бир тил сатҳига тегишли тил бирликларини эгалланган билим ва кўникмаларга асосланиб таҳлил қилиш ва презентация қилиш;

• дарслик ва ўқув қўлланмалар, махсус адабиётлар бўйича фан бўлимлари ва мавзуларини ўрганиш ва устида ишлаш;

• маъруза курсининг маълум бир қисмлари бўйича презентациялар ва маъруза фрагментларини тайёрлаш;

• танланган мавзу бўйича рефератлар ёзиш ва лойиҳалар тайёрлаш;

• ўрганилаётган чет тили лисоний материали ёки адабиёти материали асосида концептуал таҳлил методларини қўллаган ҳолда тил ва тафаккур муносабатларини, миллий дунёқарашнинг хусусиятларини, лисоний-когнитив фолиятнинг миллий-маданий хусусиятларини таҳлил этиш;

• замонавий лингвистиканинг асосий муаммолари бўйича илмий тадқиқот олиб бориш.

Мустақил ўзлаштириладиган мавзулар бўйича талабалар томонидан илмий лойиҳалар, портфолиолар тайёрлаш ва уни тақдимот қилиш тавсия этилади.

3.	**V. Фан ўқитилишининг натижалари (шаклланадиган компетенциялар)**
	Фанни ўзлаштириш натижасида талаба:

• тилшунослик тарихида рўй берган парадигмалар силжиши;

• антропоцентрик парадигма хусусиятлари;

• замонавий лингвистик йўналишлари (Когнитив лингвистика, Қиёсий Лингвомаданиятшунослик, Лингвопрагматика) ва уларнинг анъанавий тилшуносликдаги фанлардан фарқли жиҳатлари;

• замонавий лингвистика фанининг назарий ва амалий ютуқлари;

• замонавий лингвистик йўналишларидаги турли назарий қарашлар ва етакчи концепциялар тўғрисида *тасаввур ва билимга эга бўлиши;*

• лисоний материал билан ишлаш, муайян назарий масалаларга оид фикрларни баён этиш, айни фикрларга нисбатан танқидий муносабатини шакллантириш ва ифодалаш; лисоний бирликларни таҳлил қилиш методларини (кросс-маданий таҳлил, концептуал таҳлил, лингвопрагматик таҳлил, фрейм таҳлил, когнитив харита тузиш) билиш ва уларни амалиётда қўллаш, тил бирликлари когнитив ва маданий таҳлилини бошқа ёндашувлардан (структурал, генератив, семантик) фарқли жиҳатларини қиёсий таҳлил қилиш, тил бирликларда акс эттирилган миллий дунё тасвирини ифода этувчи миллий-маданий бўёқдор лисоний бирликларни ажрата олиш, илмий тадқиқот

	жараёнида долзарб масалаларни аниқлай олиши ва тил бирликларини таҳлил қилишда уларнинг ечимини топа олиши, эгаллаган билимларни ўз илмий тадқиқот амалиётида қўллаш *малакаларига эга бўлиши керак.* • замонавий лингвистик йўналишларининг терминологик аппарати, қонуниятлари ва асосий тушунчалари, асосий тамойиллари ва уларнинг хусусиятлари; маданий бирликлар ва уларнинг турлари, нутқий акт, концепт ва унинг турлари, фрейм назарияси ва унинг таҳлили; билим тузилмалари, ахборот, категоризация, концептуализация, когниция, прототип, концептуал ва лисоний дунё тасвири; когнитив метафора, унинг турлари ва вербаллашув хусусиятлари; прагматикадаги кооперация тамойили, нутқий акт турлари, прагматик вазифалар, коммуникатив-прагматик ходиса, хушмуомалалик тамойили, нутқий актнинг семантик-прагматик хусусиятлари; замонавий лингвистик йўналишлар бўйича мавзуларни билиш ва эгаллаган назарий билимларини амалиётда қўллаш *кўникмаларига эга бўлиши;*
4.	**VI. Таълим технологиялари ва методлари:** Фанни ўзлаштириш учун ўқитишнинг замонавий педагогик ва ахборот технологияларидан кенг фойдаланилади: портфолио тайёрлаш, гуруҳли музокаралар, жамоа лойихалари, жуфтликлар бўлиб топшириқларни бажариш, якка ҳолда маълум мавзу бўйича презентациялар қилиш, давра суҳбатлари ўтказиш, дискуссия, кластер, баҳс-мунозара, рефлексив усуллар (таҳлил, қиёслаш, синтез, баҳолаш). Ахборот технологиялари, жумладан, мультимедиа воситалари ёрдамида машғулотлар ташкил этилади, Power Point, Prezi дастурлари ёрдамида презентациялар яратилади. MOODLE платформасига фан бўйича дасрлик ва ўкув қўлланмалар, медиа ресурслар ва тестлар жойлаштирилади.
5.	**VII. Кредитларни олиш учун талаблар:** Фанга оид терминологик аппарат, қонуниятлар ва асосий тушунчаларни билиши; замонавий лингвистик йўналишларининг асосий тамойиллари ва уларнинг хусусиятларини билиши; замонавий лингвистик йўналишларининг асосий тушунчаларига илмий изох бера олиши ва ушбу тушунчаларини ўз илмий тадқиқотларида қўллай олиши; лисоний материални лингвопрагматик жихатларини аниқлаш ҳамда таҳлил қилиш; муайян назарий масалаларга оид фикрларни баён этиш, айни фикрларга нисбатан танқидий муносабатини шакллантириш ва ифодалаш; илмий тадқиқот жараёнида долзарб масалаларни аниқлай олиши ва тил бирликларни таҳлил қилишда уларнинг ечимини топа олиши; эгаллаган билимларни ўз илмий тадқиқот амалиётида қўллашни билиш ҳамда жорий, оралиқ ва якуний назорат шаклларида берилган вазифа ва топшириқларни бажариш ва топшириш.
6.	**Асосий адабиётлар[1]** **Инглиз тили** 1. Mey J.L. Pragmatics. An Introduction. 2nd edition. –Oxford., Blackwell Publishing LTD, 2004 2. Evans V., Green M. Cognitive Linguistics. An Introduction. – Edinburgh: Edinburgh University Press, 2006 3. Ashurova D.U., Galieva M.R. Cognitive Linguistics. – Tashkent, VneshInvestProm, 2018 4. Ashurova D.U., Galieva M.R. Cultural Linguistics. – Tashkent, VneshInvestProm, 2019

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[1] Адабиётлар рўйхатига ОТМ ахборот-ресурс марказлари имкониятлари, сохага оид замонавий манбалар ва хар бир тил хусусиятлари инобатга олинган холда қўшимчалар киритилиши мумкин. Киритилган қўшимчалар ишчи дастурларда келтирилади.

ISHCHI FAN DASTURI

O'ZBEKISTON RESPUBLIKASI

OLIY VA O'RTA MAXSUS TA'LIM VAZIRLIGI

NAMANGAN DAVLAT UNIVERSITETI

«TASDIQLAYMAN»

O'quv ishlari bo'yicha prorektor,

_____dots . D. Xolmatov

«   » avgust, 2020 yil

ZAMONAVIY LINGVISTIKA fanining

ISHCHI O'QUV DASTURI

2020/2021 o'quv yili kunduzgi ta'lim shakli, 2-kurs magistrlari uchun

Bilim sohasi: 100000 – Gumanitar soha

Ta'lim yo'nalishi: 120000 – Gumanitar fanlar

Magistratura mutaxassisligi: 5A-120102- Lingvistika (ingliz tili)

Namangan – 2020 y.

Fanning ishchi dasturi O'zbekiston Respublikasi Oliy va o'rta maxsus ta'lim vazirligining 2017 yil "24" avgustdagi "603"-sonli buyrug'ining 2-ilovasi bilan fan dasturiga muvofiq ishlab chiqildi.

Tuzuvchi: **katta o'qituvchi D. Yuldasheva**

Ishchi dastur NamDU Ingliz filologiyasi fakulteti Ingliz tili o`qitish metodikasi kafedrasining umumiy yig'ilishida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.

2020 yil _____ 1-sonli majlis bayoni.

Ingliz tili o`qitish metodikasi
kafedrasi mudiri: katta o`qituvchi S. Daminjanov

Ishchi dastur NamDU Ingliz filologiyasi fakulteti ilmiy kengashida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.

2020 yil _____ 1-sonli majlis bayoni.

Kengash raisi: p.f.n. S.Misirov

NamDU magistratura bo'limi yig'ilishida ko'rib chiqilgan va tasdiqqa tavsiya qilingan.

2020 yil _____ 1-sonli majlis bayoni.

Kelishildi :
Magistratura bo'limi boshlig'i :   dots.H.Yoqubjanova

I. O'quv fanining dolzarbligi va oliy kasbiy ta'limdagi o'rni

"Zamonaviy lingvistika" fani mutaxassislikning boshqa fanlari bilan integrallashgan holda o'qitiladi va magistrantlarning chet tili bo'yicha kommunikativ kompetentligini (lingvistik, ijtimoiy-lingvistik, diskursiv, strategik, ijtimoiy-madaniy) rivojlantirishda muhim ahamiyat kasb etadi.

Ushbu dastur til va tafakkur, til va ong, til va madaniyat, til va nutq o'zaro munosabatlarini, insonning tilda namoyon bo'luvchi kognitiv faoliyatini har taraflama o'rgatishni nazarda tutadi. Dastur zamonaviy lingvistika hamda uning yo'nalishlarining metodologik printsiplari, asosiy tushunchalarini, borliq, dunyo va voqelikni bilish va uni til orqali ongli idrok etish va kategoriyalash, tilda turli xil ekstralingvistik va madaniy xarakterga ega bilim tuzilmalarining aks etilishi, turli elatlar vakillari muloqoti jarayonida ekstralingvistik omillarning namoyon bo'lishi masalalarini o'z ichiga qamrab oladi. Zamonaviy lingvistika nuqtai nazaridan til – madaniyatlararo muloqot vositasi, bilim olish va saqlash, madaniyatni o'zida aks etish, uni amalda qo'llash va uzatish manbai va nihoyat, tafakkurni va insonning dunyoqarashini shakllantiruvchi vosita sifatida talqin etiladi. Til orqali inson borliq va voqelik haqidagi axborotni qabul qiladi, to'playdi, qayta ishlaydi, tartibga soladi va idrok etadi. Til orqali inson boshqa elat vakillari bilan muloqot qiladi va o'zga madaniyatni o'rganadi. SHu o'rinda til nafaqat muloqot quroli balki fikrni shakllantiruvchi va madaniyatni ifoda qiluvchi vosita rolini o'ynaydi. Zamonaviy lingvistika fanida ko'rilayotgan masalalarning dolzarbligi ularning "antropotsentrik" xarakterga egaligi, ya'ni insonga yo'naltirilgan, tilni bevosita inson bilan bog'liq bo'lgan masalalar (madaniyat, tafakkur, nutq, muloqot) bilan chambarchaslikda o'rganilishi ushbu yo'nalishlarning tilshunoslikda asosiy o'rin egallashiga olib keldi. Hozirgi vaqtda, zamonaviy lingvistikada qo'lga kiritilgan yutuqlar, undagi tushunchalar va terminlar, kontseptsiyalar va nazariyalar kommunikativ tilshunoslik, lingvopragmatika, psixolingvistika, gender tilshunoslik, neyrolingvistika, madaniyatlararo muloqot, lingvomadaniyatshunoslik kabi tilshunoslikning zamonaviy yo'nalishlarida ilmiy izlanishlar olib borishga zamin yaratdi.

Zamonaviy lingvistikada til va tafakkur, til va madaniyat, til va nutq, til va madaniyatlararo muloqot munosabatlari muhim ahamiyat kasb etganligi sababli, fanni o'qitishda til va tafakkur, til va madaniyatning o'zaro munosabatiga katta e'tibor qaratiladi. Dasturda zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarda alohida ahamiyat kasb etgan lisoniy faoliyatining har bir turi modul sifatida (Kognitiv lingvistika, Qiyosiy lingvomadaniyatshunoslik, Lingvopragmatika) o'qitilishi ko'zda tutilgan.

II. O'quv fanining maqsadi va vazifasi

O'kuv fanining maqsadi – magistrantlarda zamonaviy lingvistikaning metodologik printsiplari, dolzarb muammolari va asosiy tushunchalari bo'yicha mutaxassislik profiliga mos ilmiy bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarni shakllantirish va takomillashtirish hamda zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlari sohasida ilmiy tadqiqot olib borish ko'nikmalarini rivojlantirish.

O'quv fanining vazifasi deb zamonaviy lingvistikaning asosiy muammolari bo'yicha tayanch ilmiy bilimlarni; zamonaviy lingvistikada foydalaniladigan zamonaviy tahlil metodlari vositasida lisoniy va bilim tuzilmalarning, til va madaniyatlararo muloqot, til va nutq o'zaro munosabatini; zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlari sohasida ilmiy tadqiqot olib borishga o'rgatish belgilandi.

Fan bo'yicha talabalarning bilim, ko'nikma va malakalariga qo'yidagi talablar qo'yiladi. **Magistrantlar:**

tilshunoslik tarixida ro'y bergan paradigmalar siljishi, antropotsentrik paradigma xususiyatlari, zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlari (Kognitiv lingvistika, Qiyosiy lingvomadaniyatshunoslik, Lingvopragmatika) an'anaviy tilshunoslikdagi fanlardan farqli jihatlari; zamonaviy lingvistika fanining nazariy va amaliy yutuqlari; zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlaridagi turli nazariy qarashlar va yetakchi kontseptsiyalar to'g'risida ***tasavvurga ega bo'lishi;*** zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlarining terminologik apparati, qonuniyatlari va asosiy tushunchalari, asosiy tamoyillari va ularning xususiyatlari; madaniy birliklar va ularning turlari, nutqiy akt, kontsept va uning turlari, freym nazariyasi va uning tahlili; bilim tuzilmalari, axborot, kategorizatsiya, kontseptualizatsiya, kognitsiya, prototip, kontseptual va lisoniy dunyo tasviri; kognitiv metafora, uning turlari va verballashuv xususiyatlari; pragmatikadagi kooperatsiya tamoyili, nutqiy akt turlari, pragmatik vazifalar, kommunikativ-pragmatik hodisa, hushmuomalalik tamoyili, nutqiy aktning semantik-pragmatik xususiyatlari; zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalishlar bo'yicha mavzularni bilish va egallagan nazariy bilimlarini amaliyotda qo'llashni ***bilishi va ulardan foydalana olishi;*** lisoniy material bilan ishlash, muayyan nazariy masalalarga oid fikrlarni bayon etishi, ayni fikrlarga nisbatan tanqidiy munosabatini shakllantirish va ifodalash; lisoniy birliklarni tahlil qilish metodlarini (kross-madaniy tahlil, kontseptual tahlil, lingvopragmatik tahlil, freym tahlil, kognitiv xarita tuzish) bilish va ularni amaliyotda qo'llash, til birliklari kognitiv va madaniy tahlilini boshqa yondashuvlardan (struktural, generativ, semantik) farqli jihatlarini qiyosiy tahlil qilish, til birliklarda aks ettirilgan milliy dunyo tasvirini ifoda etuvchi milliy-madaniy bo'yoqdor lisoniy birliklarni ajrata olish, ilmiy tadqiqot jarayonida dolzarb

masalalarni aniqlay olishi va til birliklarini tahlil qilishda ularning yechimini topa olish, egallagan bilimlarni o'z ilmiy tadqiqot amaliyotida qo'llash *ko'nikmalari ega bo'lishi kerak.*

2.ASOSIY QISM.

2.1.Umumiy va o`quv ishlari  turlari bo`yicha hajmi

Zamonaviy lingvistika fanidan III semestr uchun 104 soat ajratilgan bo'lib shundan 36 soati ma'ruza, 36 soati amaliy mashg'ulotlarga, 40 soat mustaqil ta`lim uchun rejalashtirilgan.

2.2. Semestrlar bo'yicha mashg'ulot turlariga ajratilgan soatlar taqsimoti:

Semestr	Auditoriya mashg'ulotlari turi bo'yicha o'quv yuklamasi taqsimoti(soat)			Mustaqil ish
	Ja'mi	**Ma'ruza**	**Amaliy**	
	112	36	36	40
Ja'mi	**112**	36	36	40

3. Ma'ruzalar   mazmuni va ular bo'yicha ajratilgan soatlarning taqsimoti.

N	Mavzular	Soat
	3 modul. Lingvopragmatika	
1	**Lingvopragmatika faniga kirish**	2
2	**Lingvopragmatikaning asosiy tushunchalari**	2
3	**Nutqiy akt nazariyasi lingvopragmatikaning asosi sifatida.** Nutqiy akt nazariyasining shakllanishi va rivojlanish tarixi.	2
4	**Nutqiy akt nazariyasi lingvopragmatikaning asosi sifatida.** Performativ nutqiy aktlar. Nutqiy stereotip.	2
5	**Diskurs tushunchasi va diskurs turlari.** Nutqiy faoliyat va diskurs turlari	2
6	**Diskurs tushunchasi va diskurs turlari.** Adabiy muloqotning pragmatik jihatlari.	2
7	**G. Graysning kooperatsiya tamoyili nazariyasi .** Kooperatsiya tamoyilining asoslari va uning insonlararo muloqotdagi urni.	2
8	**G. Graysning kooperatsiya tamoyili nazariyasi .** Miqdor	2

	maksimasi, sifat maksimasi, relevantlik maksimasi, uslub maksimasi. Kommunikativ strategiyalar.	
9	**Imlikaturalar nazariyasi.** Belgi va ularni hosil qiluvchi ishtirokchilar.	2
10	**Oraliq nazorat ishi**	
11	**Xushmuomalalik tamoyili kommunikativ-pragmatik kategoriya sifatida.** Xushmuomalalik nutqiy qoidalar sifatida (R.Lakoff, Dj. Lich, G. Grays).	2
12	**Xushmuomalalik tamoyili kommunikativ-pragmatik kategoriya sifatida.** Xushmuomalalik turlari va ularning turlari. Ijobiy va salbiy xushmuomalalik.	2
13	**Lisoniy birliklarining pragmatikasi .** So'z pragmatikasi. So'z ma'nosidagi indeksal belgilarining tahlili.	2
14	**Lisoniy birliklarining pragmatikasi.** Sintaksis pragmatikasi. Deyktik belgilarining pragmatik mohiyati va tahlili.	2
15	**Muloqot va uning turlari.** Kommunikativ strategiyalar va taktikalar. Nutqiy aktning pragmatik xususiyatlari.	2
16	**Muloqot va uning turlari.** Kommunikativ barьer tushunchasi. Kommunikativ bare'rni yengish taktikalari. Verbal muloqot va noverbal muloqot xususiyatlari.	2
17	**Lisoniy shaxs nazariyasi.** Lisoniy shaxs tushunchasi. Lisoniy shaxs turlari. Lisoniy shaxsning tarkibiy qismlari va strukturasi.	2
18	**Lisoniy shaxs nazariyasi.** Lisoniy shaxsning lingvopragmatik qatlami. Lisoniy shaxsning lingvokulьturologik qatlami.	2
19	**Oraliq nazorat ishi**	
	JAMI	36

Lingvopragmatika

1-mavzu. Lingvopragmatika faniga kirish

Lingvopragmatika zamonaviy lingvistik yo'nalish sifatida. Lingvopragmatika fani sohalararo fan sifatida. Lingvopragmatika fanining shakllanishi va rivojlanishi tarixi. Lingvopragmatika fanining maqsadi, o'rganish ob'ekti va maqsadlari.

2-mavzu. Lingvopragmatikaning asosiy tushunchalari

Lingvopragmatika fanining tamoyillari, asosiy tushunchalari va terminologik apparati (kontekst, ma'no, nutqiy akt, implikatura, presuppozitsiya, deyksis va xk.). Kommunikativ-pragmatik hodisa tushunchasi. Pragmatik vazifa tushunchasi. Pragmatik vazifalar turlari. Adresat va adresant faktorlari.

3-mavzu. Nutqiy akt nazariyasi lingvopragmatikaning asosi sifatida

Nutqiy akt nazariyasining shakllanishi va rivojlanish tarixi. Dj. Ostin va Dj. Serllarning lingvopragmatika fanining rivojlanishiga qo'shgan hissasi. Nutqiy akt tushunchasi. Nutqiy aktni hosil qiluvchi tarkibiy qismlari. Nutqiy akt turlari. Lokutiv, illokutiv, perlokutiv aktlar. Performativ nutqiy aktlar. Nutqiy stereotip. Kommunikativ aktning pragmatik effektivligi.

4-mavzu. Diskurs tushunchasi va diskurs turlari

Nutqiy faoliyat va diskurs turlari. Adresat va adresant faktorlari. Diskursni o'rganishda pragmatik aspekt. Muloqotdagi lingvistik va ekstralingvistik omillar. Adabiy muloqotning pragmatik jihatlari. Nutqiy muloqotda ijtimoiy-etiket omillar. Pragmatik effektivlik. Diskurs tahlili.

5-mavzu. G. Graysning kooperatsiya tamoyili nazariyasi

Kooperatsiya tamoyilining asoslari va uning insonlararo muloqotdagi urni. Kooperatsiya tamoyilining asosiy maksimalari. Miqdor maksimasi, sifat maksimasi, relevantlik maksimasi, uslub maksimasi. Kommunikativ strategiyalar.

6- mavzu. Imlikaturalar nazariyasi

Belgi va ularni hosil qiluvchi ishtirokchilar. Implikatura nazariyasining asosiy holatlari. Implikaturalar turlari: konventsional implikaturalar, nokonventsional implikaturalar.

7-mavzu. Xushmuomalalik tamoyili kommunikativ-pragmatik kategoriya sifatida

Xushmuomalilik kategoriyasining asosiy xolatlari. Xushmuomalalik nutqiy qoidalar sifatida (R.Lakoff, Dj. Lich, G. Grays). Xushmuomalalik kategoriyasining maksimalari (sahovat maksimasi, rozilik maksimasi, simpatiya maksimasi, kamtarlik maksimasi va xk.). Xushmuomalalik turlari va ularning turlari. Ijobiy va salbiy xushmuomalalik. Xushmuomalalik diskurs sifatida (R. Uotts nazariyasi).

8-mavzu. Lisoniy birliklarining pragmatikasi

So'z pragmatikasi. So'z ma'nosidagi indeksal belgilarining tahlili. Murojaatning pragmatik mohiyati va xususiyatlari. Intonatsiyaning pragmatik jihati. Grammatik til birliklarining pragmatik jihati. Sintaksis pragmatikasi. Deyktik belgilarining pragmatik mohiyati va tahlili. Til birliklarining lingvopragmatika jihatlari va ularning tahlili.

9 – mavzu. Muloqot va uning turlari

Kommunikativ strategiyalar va taktikalar. Nutqiy aktning pragmatik xususiyatlari. Muloqotning turlari. Kommunikativ aktni tushunish va joida qo'llash.

Nutqiy aktning effektivligi. Kommunikativ barьer tushunchasi. Kommunikativ barьerni yengish taktikalari. Verbal muloqot va noverbal muloqot xususiyatlari.

10-mavzu. Lisoniy shaxs nazariyasi

Lisoniy shaxs tushunchasi. Lisoniy shaxs turlari. Lisoniy shaxsning tarkibiy qismlari va strukturasi. Lisoniy shaxsning kognitiv qatlami. Lisoniy shaxsning semantik-stilistik qatlami. Lisoniy shaxsning lingvopragmatik qatlami. Lisoniy shaxsning lingvokulьturologik qatlami. Lisoniy shaxsni ifoda etuvchi til birliklari va ularning xususiyatlari. Lisoniy shaxsni tahlil etish metodikasi.

Amaliy mashg'ulotlar bo'yicha ko'rsatma va tavsiyalar

Amaliy mashg'ulotlar uchun quyidagi mavzular tavsiya etiladi:
Lingvopragmatika fanining asosiy tushunchalari Nutqiy muloqot xususiyatlari
Nutqiy akt nazariyasining va nutqiy akt strukturasi Nutqiy akt turlari va klassifikatsiyasi
Lingvopragmatikada kooperatsiya tamoyili
Kooperatsiya tamoyilining asosiy maksimalari Nutqiy strategiyalar va taktikalar.
 Nutqiy strategiyalar tipologiyasi Nutqiy ta'sir qilish fenomeni Implikatura nazariyasi
Xushmuomalalik kategoriyasi va maksimalar
Pragmatik hodisa tushunchasi va uning turlari Pragmatik vazifa tushunchasi va uning turlari Nutqiy faoliyat va diskurs turlari.
Adresat va adresant faktorlari
Muloqotdagi lingvistik va ekstralingvistik omillar So'z pragmatikasi
Til birliklarining lingvopragmatika jihatlari va ularning tahlili
Lisoniy shaxs tushunchasi va uning turlari
Xorijiy til o'qituvchisining nutq madaniyati. Pedagogik nutq Ilmiy-pedagogik diskursning turlari Muloqotning ilmiy-pedagogi maksimalari

3. Amaliy mashg'ulotlari mazmuni va ular bo'yicha ajratilgan soatlarning taqsimoti.

N	Mavzular	Soat
	3 modul. Lingvopragmatika	
1	**Lingvopragmatika faniga kirish**	2
2	**Lingvopragmatikaning asosiy tushunchalari**	2
3	**Nutqiy akt nazariyasi lingvopragmatikaning asosi sifatida.** Nutqiy akt nazariyasining shakllanishi va rivojlanish tarixi.	2
4	**Nutqiy akt nazariyasi lingvopragmatikaning asosi sifatida.** Performativ nutqiy aktlar. Nutqiy stereotip.	2
5	**Diskurs tushunchasi va diskurs turlari.** Nutqiy faoliyat va	2

	diskurs turlari	
6	**Diskurs tushunchasi va diskurs turlari.** Adabiy muloqotning pragmatik jihatlari.	2
7	**G. Graysning kooperatsiya tamoyili nazariyasi .** Kooperatsiya tamoyilining asoslari va uning insonlararo muloqotdagi urni.	2
8	**G. Graysning kooperatsiya tamoyili nazariyasi .** Miqdor maksimasi, sifat maksimasi, relevantlik maksimasi, uslub maksimasi. Kommunikativ strategiyalar.	2
9	**Imlikaturalar nazariyasi.** Belgi va ularni hosil qiluvchi ishtirokchilar.	2
11	**Xushmuomalalik tamoyili kommunikativ-pragmatik kategoriya sifatida.** Xushmuomalalik nutqiy qoidalar sifatida (R.Lakoff, Dj. Lich, G. Grays).	2
12	**Xushmuomalalik tamoyili kommunikativ-pragmatik kategoriya sifatida.** Xushmuomalalik turlari va ularning turlari. Ijobiy va salbiy xushmuomalalik.	2
13	**Lisoniy birliklarining pragmatikasi .** So'z pragmatikasi. So'z ma'nosidagi indeksal belgilarining tahlili.	2
14	**Lisoniy birliklarining pragmatikasi.** Sintaksis pragmatikasi. Deyktik belgilarining pragmatik mohiyati va tahlili.	2
15	**Muloqot va uning turlari.** Kommunikativ strategiyalar va taktikalar. Nutqiy aktning pragmatik xususiyatlari.	2
16	**Muloqot va uning turlari.** Kommunikativ barьer tushunchasi. Kommunikativ barьerni yengish taktikalari. Verbal muloqot va noverbal muloqot xususiyatlari.	2
17	**Lisoniy shaxs nazariyasi.** Lisoniy shaxs tushunchasi. Lisoniy shaxs turlari. Lisoniy shaxsning tarkibiy qismlari va strukturasi.	2
18	**Lisoniy shaxs nazariyasi.** Lisoniy shaxsning lingvopragmatik qatlami. Lisoniy shaxsning lingvokulьturologik qatlami.	2
	JAMI	36

4. Mustaqil ishlarni tashkil etishning shakli va mazmuni.

O'tilgan mavzular yuzasidan qat'iy malaka va ko'nikmalarga erishish. O'quv materiallarining tanlovi, ularni tushuntirish,malaka va ko'nikmalarni shaklantirish,turli mashqlar bilan ishlash malakalarini oshirish,mavjud texnika vositalaridan to'g'ri va samarali foydalanishni o'rganish: Mashqlar ustida samarali ishlash. Auditoriyada o'rganilgan so'z va iboralar yordamida mustaqil tarzda gaplar va hikoyalar tuzishga harakat qilish.

Talaba mustaqil ishining asosiy maqsadi

– o`qituvchining raxbarligi va nazorati ostida talabada muayyan o`quv ishlarini mustaqil ravishda bajarish uchun zarur bo`lgan bilim va ko`nikmalarni shakllantirish va rivojlantirishdir.

Mustaqil ishning vazifalari quyidagilardan iborat:

- yangi bilimlarni mustaqil tarzda puxta o`zlashtirish ko`nikmalariga ega bo`lish.

- kerakli ma`lumotlarni izlab topish.

- axborot manbaalari va manzillaridan samarali foydalanish.

- an'anaviy o`quv va ilmiy adabiyotlar me`yoriy xujjatlar bilan ishlash

- elektron o`quv adabiyotlari va ma`lumotlar banki bilan ishlash.

- internet tarmoqlari bilan ishlash.

Dars jarayonida o'tilgan mavzular bo'yicha olingan bilim va ma'lumotlarni to'g'ri qo'llash yuzasidan qat'iy malaka va ko'nikmalarga erishish. O'quv materiallarining tanlovi,ularni tushuntirish,malaka va ko'nikmalarni shaklantirish,turli mashqlar bilan ishlash malakalarini oshirish,mavjud texnika vositalaridan to'g'ri va samarali foydalanishni o'rganish: Mashqlar ustida samarali ishlash. Auditoriyada o'tilgan mavzular bo'yicha kutubhonalarda mustaqil ravishda qo'shimcha ma'lumotlar izlab topish va ular bilan ishlash. Yangi ma'lumotlarni muntazam ravishda o'rganib borish.

Qo'llaniladigan ta'lim texnologiyalari**:** *dialogik yondoshuv, muammoli ta'lim. B/B/B jadvali, munozara, Venn diagrammasi, T-sxema, o'z-o'zini nazorat*
Adabiyotlar: A1;A2; A3; A4; Q6; Q7 Q8.

V. Mustaqil ta'lim va mustaqil ishlar

№	Mustaqil ta'lim uchun tavsiya etiladigan mavzular:	Soat
6.	Xushmuomalalik kategoriyasi maksimalarini ro'yhatini tuzish va misollar bilan isbotlash;	4
7.	Ingliz va o'zbek tillaridagi milliy-madaniy xususiyatga ega til birliklarini aniqlash va misollar bilan isbotlash;	4
8.	Leksik sathda milliy-madaniy xususiyatga ega til birliklarining ro'yhatini tuzish;	4
9.	Ingliz va o'zbek tillaridagi noverbal muloqotning turlari va shakllarini aniqlash;	4
10.	Milliy dunyo tasvirini aks etuvchi lisoniy birliklar namunalarini yig'ish va ularni tahlil qilish;	4

6	Milliy dunyo tasvirini aks etuvchi lisoniy birliklar namunalarini yig'ish va ularni tahlil qilish	4
7	Stilistik kategoriyalarning kognitiv tabiatini tahlil etish va ularni namoyon bo'lishining xususiyatlarini aniqlash;	4
8	Stilistik vositalarda bilim strukturalarining namoyon bo'lish mexanizmlarini tahlil qilish;	4
9	Nutqiy aktlar turlariga mos misollar yig'ish;	4
10	Kooperatsiya tamoyili maksimalariga misollar yig'ish va ularning pragmatik vazifalarini aniqlash.	4
	JAMI	**40**

Fan bo'yicha kurs ishi. Kurs ishi fan mavzulariga taalluqli masalalar yuzasidan magistrantlarga yakka tartibda tegishli aniq topshiriq shaklida beriladi. Kurs ishining hajmi, rasmiylashtirish shakli, baholash mezonlari ishchi fan dasturida va tegishli kafedra tomonidan belgilanadi. Kurs ishini bajarish magistrantlarda fanga oid bilim, ko'nikma va malakalarni shakllantirishga xizmat qilishi kerak.

Kurs ishi uchun taxminiy mavzular:
2.   Antropotsentrik paradigmaning zamonaviy tilshunoslikda egallagan o'rni
2. Kognitiv lingvistikaning asosiy tushunchalari
3. Kontseptualizatsiya va kontseptual struktura
4. Kontsept tushunchasi va uning strukturasi
5. Bilim tuzilmalari va uning turlari
6. Dunyo tasviri va uning turlari
7. Freym nazariyasi va freym analizi.
8. Kognitiv metafora nazariyasi. Kategorizatsiya va kognitiv modellar
9.Prototiplar nazariyasi va E.Roshning kontseptsiyasi
10. Kontseptual tahlil metodlari
11. Lingvomadaniyatshunoslik fanining asosiy tushunchalari
12. Til va madaniyat bog'liqligi Madaniyat turlari va ularning qiyosiy tadqiqi
13. Madaniy belgilar va ularning turlari
   14. Milliy-madaniy xususiyat tushunchasi va uni ifoda etuvchi til birliklarining xususiyatlari
   15. Lisoniy birliklarning milliy-madaniy xususiyati
   16. Monomadaniyat va mul'timadaniyat tushunchalari
   17. Frazeologik birliklarning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi
   18. Lingvokul'turema va uning turlari
   19.Leksik birliklarning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi
   20.Sintaktik birliklarning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi

21. Stilistik sathning lingvomadaniy va qiyosiy tadqiqi
22. Pragmatika antropotsentrik yo'nalish sifatida Lingvopragmatika fanining asosiy tushunchalari
23. Nutqiy muloqot xususiyatlari
24. Nutqiy akt nazariyasining va nutqiy akt strukturasi
25. Nutqiy akt turlari va klassifikatsiyasi
26. Lingvopragmatikada kooperatsiya tamoyili
27. Kooperatsiya tamoyilining asosiy maksimalari
28. Nutqiy strategiyalar va taktikalar.
29. Nutqiy strategiyalar tipologiyasi Nutqiy ta'sir qilish fenomeni Implikatura nazariyasi
30. Xushmuomalalik kategoriyasi va maksimalar
31. Pragmatik hodisa tushunchasi va uning turlari
32. Pragmatik vazifa tushunchasi va uning turlari
33. Nutqiy faoliyat va diskurs turlari.
34. Adresat va adresant faktorlari
35. Muloqotdagi lingvistik va ekstralingvistik omillar
36. So'z pragmatikasi
37. Til birliklarining lingvopragmatika jihatlari va ularning tahlili
38. Lisoniy shaxs tushunchasi va uning turlari
39. Xorijiy til o'qituvchisining nutq madaniyati.
40. Pedagogik nutq Ilmiy-pedagogik diskursning turlari Muloqotning ilmiy-pedagogi maksimalari

Baholash tartibi va mezonlari

1. Talabalarning fanlarni o'zlashtirishi 5 ballik tizimda baholanadi.

Malakaviy amaliyot, fan (fanlararo) davlat attestatsiyasi, bitiruv malakaviy ishi, shuningdek magistraturada ilmiy-tadqiqot va ilmiy-pedagogik ishlar hamda magistrlik dissertatsiyasi bo'yicha talabalar o'zlashtirishi ham 5 ballik tizimda baholanadi.

2. Talabaning fan bo'yicha o'zlashtirishini baholashda quyidagi namunaviy mezonlar tavsiya etiladi:

5 (a'lo) baho: xulosa va qaror qabul qilish; ijodiy fikrlay olish; mustakil mushohada yurita olish; olgan bilimlarini amalda qo'llay olish; mohiyatini tushunish; bilish, aytib berish; tasavvurga ega bo'lish.

4 (yaxshi) baho: mustaqil mushohada yurita olish; olgan bilimlarini amalda qo'llay olish; mohiyatini tushunish; bilish, aytib berish; tasavvurga ega bo'lish.

3 (qoniqarli) baho: mohiyatini tushunish; bilish, aytib berish; tasavvurga ega bo'lish.

2 (qoniqarsiz) baho: dasturni o'zlashtirmaganlik; fanning mohiyatini bilmaslik; aniq tasavvurga ega bo'lmaslik; mustaqil fikrlay olmaslik.

3. Talabaning fan bo'yicha yakuniy bahosi semestrda belgilangan baholash turlari (OB, YaB) bo'yicha olingan ijobiy ballar (3, 4, 5)ning o'rtacha arifmetik miqdori sifatida aniqlanadi va yaxlitlanib butun sonlarda kaydnoma, sinov daftarchasi va talabalar o'zlashtirishini hisobga olish elektron tizimida shu kunning o'zida (baholash yozma ish shaklida o'tkazilgan bo'lsa, uch kun muddat ichida) qayd etiladi.
Talabaning "2 (qoniqarsiz)" bahosi sinov daftarchasiga qayd etilmaydi.

VI. Asosiy va qo'shimcha o'quv adabiyotlar hamda axborot manbalari

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TESTLAR

NAZORAT SAVOLNOMALARI:

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on final assessment

Card № 1

Answer the following questions:

1. What does Linguistics study ?
2. What is the dialect? What can you say about the difference between language and dialect?
3. What are the syntactical units and give your own examples to them?

_____

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on final assessment

Card № 2

Answer the following questions:

1. What is Pragmatics study ?
2. What are phraseological units?
3. Write down about the features of communicative competence?

_____

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on final assessment

Card № 3

Answer the following questions:

1. How does culture influence language? What would be an example of this?
2. What does Sociolinguistics study?
3. Write down about world language classification ?

_____

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on final assessment

Card № 4

Answer the following questions:

1. What does Cognitive linguistics study?
2. Explain and give illustrations to cognitive metaphor?

3. What is the notion of "concept"?

_____

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on   final assessment

Card № 5

Answer the following questions:
1. What are the main components of the language?
2. What can you say about the notions of "monoculture" and "multiculture"?
3. How does culture influence language? What would be an example of this?

_____

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on final assessment

Card № 6

Answer the following questions:
1. What does Linguo-culturology study ?
2. What are the speech acts?
3.   Write down about three main factors that influence to the language?

_____

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on final assessment

Card № 7

Answer the following questions:
1. What can you say about "The theory of FRAME"?
2. What are the phraseological units ?
3.   Write down about the types of cognitive linguistics?

Questions on the subject "Modern linguistics" for the students of master degree on final assessment

Card № 8

Answer the following questions:
1. What can you say about "Cognitive linguistics"?
2. What are the grammatical units ?
3.   Write down about the acts of speech?

Baholash mezonlarini qo'llash bo'yicha uslubiy ko'rsatmalar;

BAHOLASH TARTIBI VA MEZONLARI

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Talabaning "2 (qoniqarsiz)" bahosi sinov daftarchasiga qayd etilmaydi.

TARQATMA MATERIALLAR